

The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Volume VIII.
Number 2.

PHILADELPHIA, FEBRUARY, 1917.

\$2.00 a year.
20 cents a copy.

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Published monthly, except July and August, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

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Published monthly, except July and August,
at 1619-1621 Ranstead Street, Philadelphia, Pa., by
McKINLEY PUBLISHING CO.

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OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION,
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SUBSCRIPTION PRICE, two dollars a year; single copies, twenty cents each.

REDUCED RATE of one dollar a year is granted to members of the American Historical Association, and to members of local and regional associations of history teachers. Such subscriptions must be sent direct to the publishers or through the secretaries of associations (but not through subscription agencies).

POSTAGE PREPAID in United States and Mexico; for Canada, twenty cents additional should be added to the subscription price, and for other foreign countries in the Postal Union, thirty cents additional.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS. Both the old and the new address must be given when a change of address is ordered.

ADVERTISING RATES furnished upon application.

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War and Peace in the Light of History

BY CARL CONRAD ECKHARDT, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

When I was requested to bring a message that history teachers need just at this time, I did not take a long time to choose; I selected "War and Peace in the Light of History." What I shall say to you I have been saying to myself many a time in the last two years, when it seemed that the main interest in present-day history is centered in war and wholesale destruction by the most advanced nations of the Occident and Orient. So it seemed fitting to consider what part war and peace have played in history, what the attitude of mankind has been toward both, and what the efforts are that have been made to eliminate war and to establish permanent peace.

History is the account of man's progress in society. It deals with man's efforts to develop his material, social, intellectual and spiritual well-being. While making these efforts he has had great obstacles to overcome, the forces of nature and himself; and man has been far more successful in overcoming the physical and biological forces of nature than in conquering human nature. By mechanical and electrical inventions, man has made steam and electricity do most of his work; he has annihilated distance; he has learned to fly in the air, to make submarines, to send messages by wireless. The desert has been made to bloom; the waterfall has been made to supply power to the wheels of industry; the mines of the earth have been forced to yield up their treasures; the phonograph records for all time the tones of our greatest singers and musicians.

Through man's understanding of biology and biological laws he has learned to create new varieties of vegetation, better breeds of animals. He has enabled the toothless man to chew, the armless man to do many mechanical acts by means of artificial arms; the deaf are provided with a hearing apparatus. Through surgical operations man has learned to give life to the dying child, by transmitting the blood from the veins of a well person. Through vaccination and other preventive measures man has been made immune to typhoid, smallpox, diphtheria, colds, malaria, yellow fever, cholera, the black plague.

Man has conquered nature and is conquering disease, but he cannot conquer himself. Man is his own worst enemy. He is working on many social problems, and with marked success. He is trying to become master of himself in his social relations, but his success here is not as striking as in his conquest of nature. Man has as yet been unable to wrestle successfully with the problem of eliminating war, the most costly and destructive enemy of social progress that he has yet encountered.

In all recorded history we find that there have been intermittent wars, and that the years when there has been peace are far outnumbered by the years during which there was war. According to the great publicist Bloch, who wrote on the "Future of War," during the 3,357 years from 1496 B. C. to 1861 A. D., there have been 3,130 years of war and 227 years of peace; 13 years of war to one of peace. This means that somewhere in the world there was war during these three and a third thousand years of history. It does not mean that every country on the average has had thirteen years of war to one year of peace. In the 140 years of our own history we have had seventeen years of war and one hundred and twenty-three years of peace, the ratio being seven years of peace to one of war. But, in the history of all nations some time or other, sooner or later, war has disrupted human society.

War has been an inevitable thing; war was bound to come. It is natural for human beings to have differences of opinion, it is natural for nations to compete and have grievances. It is natural for nations to attempt conquests at the expense of weaker neighbors; it is natural for nations to wish to dominate a certain continent; indeed, the whole world. So long as that condition exists there will inevitably be war.

Thinkers of the past have not merely regarded war as inevitable, but have gone farther and have regarded it as a beneficial institution. It has been pointed out that many wars have been of enormous benefit to humanity. The successful Greek wars of the fifth century B. C. made it possible for the superior civilization of the Greeks to continue its development, and for its fruits to refresh mankind for all time. Rome's wars of conquest made it possible for her superior political and legal institutions to be introduced into the life of the Mediterranean peoples, and the political unity thus established made it possible for Christianity to be spread over the whole civilized world. The interstate and civil wars of Italy in Renaissance times developed a superior intellectual attitude designated by the term individualism. The French wars from 1792 to 1795 developed the French national spirit and national consciousness, which have yielded rich fruits in the national life of the French. These are merely typical statements of sober historians and other students of society. They are found in our text-books and treatises, and we are emphasizing them in connection with our work as history teachers.

War has also been lauded for its moral and other values. It is pointed out that war develops such

moral qualities as patriotism, courage, self-sacrifice, efficiency, devotion to a lofty ideal, consideration for the welfare of others, willingness and ability to dispense with luxury.

War makes for physical strength, the elimination of the unfit. It prevents moral degeneracy and national dependence on other nations. So humane a writer as Ruskin praises war as follows: "All the pure and noble arts of peace are founded on war. . . . There is no great art possible to a nation but that which is based on battle. . . . All great nations learned their truth of word and strength of thought in war; they were nourished in war and wasted in peace; taught by war and deceived by peace; trained by war and betrayed by peace." ("Crown of Wild Olive.")

Some writers in Germany, England, the United States, and elsewhere have regarded war as a divine institution. Moltke, in Germany; the Englishman, Colonel Maude; our own American admirals, Fiske and Luce, say that war is an ordinance of God. Theodore Roosevelt says, "We must play a great part in the world, and especially perform those deeds of blood and valor, which above everything else bring national renown." ("Strenuous Life.")

Such, in brief, has been the place of war in history. It has been regarded as inevitable, inherently necessary, because of the pugnacious characteristics of men and society, a divine arrangement, which in spite of its horrors and destructiveness has produced such splendid moral and artistic results that it must be maintained.

But society has not been unanimous in regarding war as inevitable and beneficent. Ever since the remotest ages of recorded history there have been literary men, poets, philosophers, statesmen that have lauded peace and opposed war. There have been innumerable projects to make war impossible. Within the last twenty-five years peace societies have been organized in every country of the world, richly endowed organizations are conducting a propaganda against war and in favor of various methods to secure peace and make it enduring.

However ineffective this propaganda has been in securing its ultimate object, it can point with satisfaction to one glowing success, and that is that war is now no longer regarded by very many people as desirable. War is a thing to be avoided; the divineness of war is no longer asserted. Few people emphasize war's development of manly qualities and other alleged benefits. No one justifies war because of the things accompanying it. The nation that brings on a war loses the moral respect of other nations, and one great party in this country is appealing to the nation for re-election because it kept the country out of war.

Society is definitely facing the problem of war and its elimination. Never has so much attention been paid to this subject any time in history as now. Never before has there been such a sentiment in favor of peace, not merely temporary peace, but lasting peace, and enduring peace. Each of the belligerent nations of Europe openly proclaims that all it is fighting for is a permanent peace. Each has declared its willing-

ness to fight on for years longer if only thereby permanent and general peace can be secured. In all neutral countries the press is filled with attacks on the system that has produced this great war, it is demanding that something be done to prevent another world calamity. Preachers, teachers, public speakers are all directing attention to this great problem. Never before has there been such a propaganda for peace and against war.

Let us consider the main remedies that are being proposed to abolish war and to establish permanent peace. First and foremost of the plans being advocated in the press and on the platforms of this nation is military preparedness. The essence of this remedy as expounded in this country is, that in order to prevent being attacked by a hostile power the United States must make its army and navy so strong that all other nations will fear to attack it. If we wish to insure ourselves against war we must be so fully prepared for war that no nation will think of affronting us or attacking us. This is apparently a splendid peace method. It is embodied in the platforms of both political parties; it has been advocated from pulpits, by woman's clubs, by the National Educational Association, by almost every congressman that wishes to be returned to office, by every business man that wants to retain the patronage of his customers. We have had a national hysteria of preparedness. We have been told that if only the European powers had prepared for war there would have been no war. If England, Germany, France and Russia, instead of penuriously expending only one-third of their annual national income for their armies and navies, had spent two-thirds for military purposes, there would have been no war. If only their armies and navies had been prepared for war this great human calamity could not have occurred. And so the United States, in order to avoid such a calamity as has befallen Europe, appropriates the largest sum of money ever appropriated at any one time by any nation for military purposes. School boards are seriously considering the introduction of the cadet system into the high schools, and even into the grade schools, in order to prepare this nation for war as a peace-preserving measure—in which we are outdoing the European powers, for none of them have introduced military drill into their public schools.

With all due deference to the words of wisdom that have been uttered by our editors, preachers, National Education Association officers and others, I venture to say that our military preparedness program will be inadequate as a peace-preserving method. The unfortunate thing is that the munitions manufacturers, who have in this country had so much to do with frightening the American Congress and the American public into their preparedness hysteria, are doing the same thing in other countries. In every country there is a preparedness propaganda, and in every one of the great nations there has been an increased expenditure for armaments during the last fifteen years. The great trouble with the military preparedness argument is that it is such a good argument for any one

country that all other countries are quite ready to see its value for themselves. Instead of having only our nation making itself so strong in a military way that it cannot be attacked successfully by any power or group of powers, each of the other nations is trying to do the same thing; that is, each nation is trying to be stronger than every other nation, which is a mathematical impossibility. Each nation cannot be the strongest, but all the great nations are competing for this position; each is spending all the money it possibly can, and relatively the strength of the individual nations will be determined as before, by the amount of wealth each nation controls.

However, it is not my purpose especially to attack the idea of the ultimate efficacy of preparedness. But I do wish to show that the military preparedness propaganda indicates that there is a strong sentiment against war. Preparedness has been urged as a necessary preventive of war. Even this militaristic measure is regarded as a peaceful measure; its strongest advocates state that its purpose is to prevent war.

But, along with preparedness, there is another kind of peace propaganda that has been carried on for many decades, namely, the peace movement, which advocates joint international disarmament, international organization, a world legislature to codify international law and to formulate new laws as needed, a system of international courts to settle disputes that might lead to international friction and war, a world executive, with a world police force to enforce the observance of peace. Contrary to the ideas of the preparedness advocates this group of propagandists do not believe in the maxim, "If you wish peace, prepare for war;" they hold that "if you wish peace, prepare for peace." In every one of the great belligerent countries there are at least several organizations that are working not merely for the cessation of the present war, but are planning a campaign after the war to secure joint international action for the creation of institutions and sentiment that will prevent wars in the future. Some of these organizations were in existence before the outbreak of the war, some have been founded since the war broke out. In our own country there are several organizations with these ends in view.

The schemes advocated by these organizations are no longer merely in the realm of the visionary. One of the organizations that the war has produced in this country is the League to Enforce Peace. This has already had two sessions, which were attended by governors, mayors, educators, diplomats, congressmen, and capitalists. These meetings were presided over by ex-President Taft; at the second meeting President Wilson made a memorable address in support of the plan. Mr. Hughes has at various times spoken in favor of the League's program, and within the last two months Lord Bryce and Viscount Grey have given public utterance in England in support of the plan. A scheme that is fostered by such men, experienced in practical affairs, cannot be regarded as the chimera of visionaries.

Perhaps most significant is the fact that in the bill making the enormous appropriations for the increase of our navy in the next five years, is a clause authorizing the President of the United States to summon a conference of nations at a suitable time after the close of the war. If this conference unites in international disarmament, the President is authorized to stop the execution of those parts of the armament plan that have not yet been carried out.

So we may rightly say that the main public sentiment as regards war and peace in the world to-day is opposed to war and in favor of some method that will bring an enduring peace. War is more unpopular to-day than ever before; there never was such a desire for durable peace. Society has clearly stated the problem; two chief ways of achieving peace have been proposed: (1) preparedness, and (2) international organization. I do not mean to maintain that we are ready as yet for the full acceptance of a program of internationalism. It may take a hundred years or more before the world sees the wisdom of applying the plan. But it should be stated that in this country the chief public men that are advocating preparedness, such as Wilson, Hughes, Taft, regard this as a temporary measure, and they are also advocating world organization. Prominent public men in the belligerent countries have the same attitude.

But we can never have an internationalism that will permanently bring peace until the following things have been achieved:

1. There must be created an international sentiment in all the nations in the world. Our present narrow patriotism, bigoted nationalism, must be greatly modified. The nations must learn to feel that national ambitions, national ideals are not the highest good, that there is a still higher good, the rights of humanity.

2. There must be created a world machinery, supported by the states of the world. There must be created an international personnel, a body of officers that can be trusted, whose sense of fairness and justice is well recognized, so that nations will be willing to entrust their interests to world courts and world administrative officers.

Whatever else may be necessary for a world state, these two things cannot be wanting, an international sentiment and an effective, trustworthy administrative personnel. This is largely a task of education, of creating public sentiment. Never was a greater educational task offered to the teachers of the world. The students of to-day will be the public of the future. Are they going to be bigoted nationalists? Are they going to be actuated by a narrow patriotism that will sanction the humiliation of Mexico or any other weaker country merely because the United States has a more powerful military equipment? Will they be willing to rush into war every time there is international friction? Will they fight first and reason afterwards?

The problem is one not only for the teachers of Colorado and America, but for the educators of every advanced nation of the world. It will take decades

to prepare the minds of the coming generations. This movement of progress will meet with much inertia, much skepticism and ridicule. There will be many hard-headed practical men who will continue to say: "War is as old as history, there will always be war. You cannot change human nature." But the same arguments have been used time and again concerning other things. Slavery, too, was as old as history. It was a legalized institution; it was divinely ordained. Great writers defended it. In the South, before the Civil War, there was not a college president or professor or minister or public man that did not defend it. It was maintained that slavery was fundamental to the best interests of society. But slavery disappeared.

It used to be felt that religious uniformity was necessary; religious toleration would disrupt society, and many a religious civil war was fought against religious toleration. But now we have religious toleration in all advanced countries. It used to be argued, with the Scriptures as authority, that woman must be kept in a position inferior to man; that woman is the inferior of man mentally, physically, spiritually. For a long time this was firmly believed. But now in many countries woman has been given rights that make her the equal of man, and neither man nor woman has suffered in consequence. It used to be maintained that the use of alcoholic liquor could never be abolished. Man has always used intoxicants; you cannot change human nature. But half the United States is dry today, and the European governments are working toward the abolition of strong drink.

In all of these cases, the conservative, anti-reform forces were as firmly entrenched in precedent, legality, scriptural authority, as the anti-peace crowd is to-day. But the reforms came anyway.

This does not necessarily prove that war is going to be abolished. But it does make clear that the forces of conservatism have been beaten time and again when they had the same attitude that they now take toward war. In the light of history it is not certain that war will always prevail. In the light of history, when human society gets ready to abolish an age-long evil, it does it. It is merely getting ready for it that is important. Society is more ready to abolish war than it ever has been before. Greater effort is being expended on this problem than in any previous age. The terribleness of war has never been more fully known and recognized than at the present time.

No one can tell what the outcome will be. But for optimists, and especially for us history teachers, who know how the alleged impossible things of the past have become achievements, the only thing to do is confidently to teach that in the light of history war is not necessarily here to stay, and that the world will get permanent peace when it is sufficiently educated morally to see that other nations have rights, and that world peace cannot exist until there is a world state. To secure this desideratum much education is necessary, and all history teachers ought to be glad for an opportunity to do their part in this important educational work.¹

Values of History Instruction

REPORT OF A COMMITTEE OF THE NORTHWESTERN ASSOCIATION.

To the Members of the Northwestern Association of History, Government and Economics Teachers:

Your committee appointed at the meeting of the association last April to draw up a statement of what history instruction aims to do for general education reports as follows:

History, like every other study, has certain essential values, and certain educational by-products. The word *by-products* is used to include those values that accrue to the student from the study of history, but which are only incidental. The same returns may be obtained in an equal or greater degree from other studies, or from training outside of school. These by-products, however, must be taken into consideration by the educational administrator in estimating the full value of history for the school curriculum, and to a lesser degree by the teacher in presenting the subject in the classroom. Your committee feels that it is important that both administrator and teacher recognize these minor returns as merely by-products, not to be confused with the essential values of history instruction.

THE MOST IMPORTANT BY-PRODUCTS OF HISTORY INSTRUCTION.

1. Owing to the fact that history deals with complex phenomena, it affords a good opportunity for the weighing and balancing of arguments and the *forming of judgments* on the strength of the evidence.

2. Dealing with strange lands and old customs full of vital human interest, it gives a splendid *stimulus to the imagination*.

3. Politics forming a considerable part of the story of the past historical study stimulates an interest in one's country, and lays a *basis for intelligent patriotism*.

ESSENTIAL VALUES OF HISTORY INSTRUCTION.

We speak of essential values of historical study, meaning thereby those returns that are peculiar to the subject, and so important as to compel their presentation—those values that put history into the curriculum and keep it there. These appear to the committee to

¹ A paper read before the History Section of the Colorado State Teachers' Association, Denver, Col., November 2, 1916.

be: (1) a familiarity with social phenomena, or what might be called social experience, and (2) the development of an historical point of view.

Historical instruction sets out consciously to give the student that contact with human society that comes otherwise merely as an incident of every-day life. The reading and study of history is social experience concentrated and administered according to rule and measure. It crowds into a few hours time the greatest and finest experiences of the ages. The boy who at sixteen years of age has no acquaintances but his neighbors, and no experiences but the prosy happenings of the immediate community, may in a year of historical study rise above both time and space and revel in a host of new emotions and desires—spread his tent with Abraham, help Alexander to found a world empire, stroll with Socrates beneath the walls of Athens, march to world conquest with the Roman legions, listen to wandering minstrels within the massive walls of a baron's castle, or march in all the trappings of chivalry to redeem the Holy City. With Petrarch or Michelangelo he may give the world a new art, and with Luther or Loyola fire mankind with religious enthusiasm. This same inconspicuous youth may live, in part at least, the life of king, philosopher, peasant, zealot, barbarian, baron, priest and acolyte. In the world of his reading he wears a thousand kinds of dress, lives in strange habitations, and eats strange foods. He is present when empires fall, when creeds crumble, when all the world goes wild over some new thing. He sees barbarous hordes grow into great nations, slaves and serfs rise to economic and political independence, well-established institutions and beliefs decay and disappear. If he possesses spirit and a heart he thrills with enthusiasm for some struggling cause, and catches from a great leader the splendid animus that makes the world move. Through his historical study he is gaining a great social experience, and is fitting himself for a broader and saner social life.

The same results, it is true, may be obtained through a more personal contact with society, through social and business activity, by association with great leaders and taking an active part in large social, economic, and political enterprises, by travel, by reading newspapers and magazines and imaginative literature, especially the novel and the drama. But for most persons all this is impossible, or comes only as the result of a life's activity. Few of us are privileged to be associated personally with big movements, or to be on intimate terms with great leaders. Our activities are in limited fields.

Yet as citizens of a democracy, and as members of a rapidly developing world-society, we are all called upon to think and act upon national and world questions—matters that call for big vision and wide social experience. History, a study of the development of human society, is a short-cut to this necessary urbanity. It is here that the student gathers the facts, observes the tendencies, forms the judgments that help him to make enlightened decisions when called upon to act in present-day society. Not that the so-called "lessons of history" can be concretely applied to

contemporary problems, for this is rarely the case. There are few rule-of-thumb principles that can be used in determining social action. The phenomena are so complex that they defy generalization. There are few rules such as are laid down in the more exact sciences that the man of limited experience may depend upon in forming his conclusions and basing his action. Social decisions must be based, for the most part, on opinions, the result of a wide social experience. They can rarely be proved to be right or wrong. The sanity of public action in a democratic society must, therefore, depend largely upon the breadth of social experience, the acquaintance with varied social phenomena that the individual members possess.

It is the object of instruction in history and the other social sciences to supply the material for this cosmopolitan outlook. In the school courses a beginning is made in presenting material and developing a point of view, and an impetus is given toward independent reading throughout life. With the increasing complexity of our society, and the growing movement towards democracy, it seems clear that the work of instruction in the social sciences must become more and more important.

The second, and really unique, function of history teaching is to develop what may be called a historical point of view. It is a common criticism of history that it deals with the dead past, while the really live man should have his attention focused assiduously upon the present. No one, assuredly, will attempt to argue against a man's attentive study of his own age, its capabilities, its wants, its temper. But a man must have a wholly distorted and confused conception of his own times unless he sees them as a part of a much larger thing—the life of the human race. A glimpse of the present is meaningless without a picture of the past and vision of the future. To live intelligently in the present it is necessary for one to perceive our age as the latest phase of a great social development. Human society is a living, growing thing, having its beginning somewhere in the darkness of antiquity, passing through the present, and pushing on into the mists of the future. It is a complex thing made up of millions of little ideas, interests, hopes, fancies, prejudices, superstitions, running along from year to year, side by side like strands in a rope. Any age, that of Caesar, of Luther, of Rousseau, of Gladstone, should be looked upon as a cross-section of this continuous growth. Our present-day political, social and religious institutions, our material resources, our tastes, ideals, strivings may all be regarded as various elements in the newest layer of social growth.

Nothing is more important, probably nothing else is so important to intelligent living, as this perspective of the conditions under which we live. It cannot fail to affect our every act and interest. The things about us are no longer static, but alive and growing: some are in the freshness of youth, some in the firmness of middle-age, some are tottering in their senility. All are part of an orderly progress that has been going on for all time. Such a viewpoint saves us from both

a vaunting radicalism and a stifling conservatism. With the picture of the whole development of society spread out before us we are not inclined to believe in an immediate approach of the millennium nor in the absolute permanency of the existing order.

It is the province of history alone to develop this perspective. No other study deals directly with the time relation. Geography, physics, biology, economics are all primarily concerned in discovering the relations existing between objects and forces at play in the existing order of things. History gives matters a place in time. This is its unique function. Since we have become aware that we are part of an ever-developing universe, it appears as important to know *when* an event happens as *how* it happens—the time relation is just as important as the space relation. History teachers should bear this fact in mind that the primary concern of their subject is *time*. It devolves upon them to develop in the students the historical attitude of mind which sees everything in the social world as elements in the age-long progress of humanity.

It is the opinion of the committee that the teachers of history in the secondary schools should center their

attention and effort upon the accomplishment of two things:

1. The presentation in clear outline and in rich color of the significant things of the past—leaders, crises, social states, movements—to serve the student as a store-house of experience to be drawn upon as an aid in forming social judgments in his every-day life.

2. The development of an historical point of view so that the student will not exaggerate the importance of his own age, but will appreciate the fact that his activity and the causes that he serves are but tiny transient incidents in the one great life going on through the ages.

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Pictorial Documents as Illustrating American History

BY FRANK WEITENKAMPF, NEW YORK CITY.

In these days of the ever-present photograph and "movies" it seems hardly necessary to insist on the documentary value of pictures. Education by pictorial means is in the air. But this very easy acceptance on the part of the public, of the printed picture is a somewhat disquieting matter. If the pictorial print is a document, it should be critically examined as is the manuscript and printed document. Is it always, even by historians?

The speed of production of the newspaper may permit pictures to slip through without clear determination of origin. For instance, one well-known paper in 1913 pictured O. H. Perry in the Battle of Lake Erie "after Stuart's painting," but the painting was by W. H. Powell and was executed many years after the battle. And at the time of the Benjamin Franklin bicentenary there appeared in one or more papers a reproduction of "Franklin chez lui, à Philadelphie" illustrating Dr. Manasseh Cutler's letter describing Franklin with others, seated in his garden. A little investigation proved that the picture had been painted about 1876 by Henry Bacon and was therefore a purely imaginary depiction of something that might indeed have taken place. It was not the publication of the print that was wrong, of course, but the implied age of the picture. Perhaps such things might be passed over, if it were not for the fact that so large a portion of the public practically depends on the daily press for printed information, and has a re-

spectful attention for any printed statement in word or picture, made with sufficient emphasis.

But publishers of historical books seem also at times to accept for reproduction, with implicit faith, any pictorial material that has once before received the stamp of approval in the shape of publication. And that delightfully vague term "old print" is set under the illustration, whether the original is fifty years old or two hundred. It might as well refer to one of Alonzo Chappel's reconstructions of the late sixties as to a Peter Pelham mezzotint of the early eighteenth century. Parenthetically, let me say that Chappel really seems to have reconstructed with some conscientiousness. At all events, my lurking doubts as to the correctness of uniform detail in his drawing of the death of Col. Ellsworth were dispelled when I came across a photograph of the Zouave who shot Ellsworth's slayer, which quite agreed with Chappel's rendering.

One has but to look over even a partial list of the queries that come to a prints division, such as that of the New York public library, to realize that the demand for pictorial illustration is a widespread one. Here are a few of the things asked for in the field of American history: Saddles of Washington's day, Kit Carson's saddle, head-dress of an old lady in 1810, country girl of 1812, British caricatures on American subjects, log cabins, Conestoga wagon, country school house of 1840, advent of the American flag, inaugurations before Lincoln, clipper ships, early railway

trains, Dutch colonial dress, canal boat passenger travel, and, of course, portraits of various individuals and views of various places.

From a more or less large amount of pictorial material the inquirer generally makes his choice by a sort of rough-and-ready sifting. The librarian may, in the rush of business, give some help, raise the warning hand. Should an unwary writer be attracted, for example, by the quaintness of that series of eighteenth century prints issued at Augsburg for "peep-show" use, depicting revolutionary events in New York city (destruction of the king's statue, triumphal entry of the royal troops), he may be stopped from further action by being told that the things are pure and undiluted "fakes."

The contemporaneousness of a print does not necessarily imply correctness. During the Revolution, the magazines of the day contained a good number of plans, views, battle scenes, portraits of commanders. Various separate prints illustrating current events also saw the light. They represent the closest available approach to correctness, and at the worst are probably not generally as airy in their treatment of facts as was J. F. Renault in his "Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown." Yet even those four famous old pictures of the engagements at Concord and Lexington, engraved by Amos Doolittle from drawings by Ralph Earle, were criticised by Edward Simmonds, the mural painter, who, having gone carefully over the ground, pointed out to me various errors in the placing of buildings in those quaint prints.

Nor does hoary age guarantee us against the "fake." It appears even in the early days of book-illustration. In Schedel's "Nuremberg Chronicle," issued in 1493, you will find impressions from the same wood-block doing duty, at various places, as portraits of quite different individuals, or the same view labeled, on different pages, with the name of different localities. If we agree with George E. Woodberry that "the representations were typical rather than individual" such euphemism is not applicable to products of a much later date in our own land. During the formative period of our republic¹ "events in our land attracted attention, and portraits were produced that bore more or less—often less—resemblance to the originals. Franklin could at least be drawn from the life by the French—*vide* Duplessis and Cochin—and his face became familiar throughout the land whose inhabitants he had quite captured by his personality. But by the time Cochin's impression of him had reached Germany, it could hardly be recognized in the traduction of J. C. Haid's mezzotint, with rather a Teutonic aspect, as we may find it also in some portraits of Washington, or, later, of Lincoln. Not only were some foreign artists influenced by the types around them, but the demand for portraiture occasionally resulted in "truly exhaustive efforts of the artist's imagination," as W. L. Andrews characterizes John Michael Probst's conceptions of Charles Lee and

Putnam. Such fabrications have their notes of gaiety: so in a sober, quite Hollandish, bearded "Wm. Penn," in a book of travels in the United States, published in Utrecht in the seventeenth century, or in Chapman's bust, in stipple, of Washington, with side whiskers and a naval chapeau, drawn by Captain R. K. Porter, R. N.

"But the imaginary portrait—call it 'fake,' if you will—was not unknown in those days in our own land, either. The origin of Revere's Col. Benjamin Church (1772) is quite evident when you see it side by side with the portrait of C. Churchill from Smollett's 'History of England,' (1758-65). His full-length of King Philip, as Andrews points out, has not even that basis of fact, but is 'evolved entirely from his own consciousness.' The full-length Washington (possibly by John Norman, thinks C. H. Hart), 'in Roman dress as ordered by Congress for the monument to be erected in Philadelphia,' was transformed from that of Sir William de la More, in full coat of mail. One can continue this paragraph on un-authenticity to much later dates, to include, for instance, the Franklin bust portrait, of the Wilson type, engraved by F. Halpin, which, despite its evidently eighteenth century garb, did duty as a picture of Roger Williams. Necessity of quick production gave rise to the expedient of taking out the head on an already engraved plate and substituting another. Stauffer has pointed out that the James Madison signed *Bona del Parte sculp* is Akin's portrait of Benjamin Rush, with head and signature changed. And A. H. Ritchie's full-length portrait of Abraham Lincoln was originally one of Calhoun.

"Still quicker results could be attained by changing only the name of the personage; so Michele Pekenino, an engraver reconstructed by Stauffer, produced a portrait of Bolivar by changing the lettering on his head of A. B. Durand. And the portrait of James Arlington Bennet, LL.D., at 30, by Story and Atwood after J. Neagle, appears also with Bennet's name replaced by that of Aesop. A collector with an eye for humor has united in one frame five eighteenth century woodcuts, each representing the profile of a gentleman in a three-cornered hat. The only appreciable difference is in the names, which are: Richard Howel, Samuel Adams, Henry Lee, Bradley (Governor of Rhode Island) and Columbus. But 'a portrait's a portrait, although there's nothing in it,' and the enterprising publisher runs in a portrait of 'Hendryk' Hudson, or some equally doubtful one, adding the glamor of research among pictorial documents by using the impressive caption 'from an old print,' a description used impartially for one two centuries old, or only fifty years." And as an early example of newspaper enterprise one may cite that one-issue "blanket-sheet" brought out during the Mexican war, "Brother Jonathan, 'Great Pictorial Battle Sheet'" (New York, 1847). This offered an amusing mixture of bona-fide portraits of American generals and French and other foreign cuts, appropriated to do duty as delineations of Mexican life. These pictures of French cuirassiers and Italian brigands posing as

¹ "American Graphic Art," by F. Weitenkamp, New York, 1912.

Mexican soldiers and civilians constitute as pretty an example as one could find of the bare-faced "fake." In 1913 Mr. Charles Henry Hart read before the American Historical Association a paper on "Frauds in Historical Portraiture," dealing largely with American portraits. No more is necessary than a reference to that, since it is in print.

Before the days of the camera, facts passed through the alembic of the personal viewpoint of the artist, with possible change and distortion. And the camera? That dumb, mechanical, faithful agent reproduces impartially whatever is set before it, both truth and "fake," and clever humanity sees to it that it shall be the latter, if that be more convenient. The photograph's statements are affected, like those of humanity, by point of view.

After all, however, the occasional fault no more impairs the utility of the print than the possibility of error, or the bias or confused judgment of the "eye-witness" lessens the usefulness of printed or manuscript sources. The "personal equation" cannot be absolutely eliminated from written, printed or pictured testimony. Even the printing of a government document does not necessarily mean the telling of the whole truth.

Views, whether photographic or painted or drawn on the spot by an artist, will generally be accepted as fairly trustworthy representations. On the other hand, pictures of occurrences, battles, mob attacks, sessions of representative bodies, are practically never produced synchronously with the event. There is the photograph, of course, but that cannot, for obvious reasons, give a battle, for instance, at close hand. It may sometimes reproduce a small slice of an event, and then becomes at best anecdotal history. The painting or drawing of a battle or other affair, even if the artist was present, can at best give but his impression. In other words, it is the artist's privilege, just as it has been of certain historians of a vivid style, to put the breath of life into a recital. John Trumbull, himself a participant in the Revolution, left a dramatic representation of the Battle of Bunker Hill. It is an open question whether he expressed the spirit of the scene any more truly than did Howard Pyle a hundred years later in his two illustrations, one showing the British grenadiers doggedly advancing up the hill in close formation, the other depicting Bostonians watching the battle from their house-tops. The New York public library owns a large scrapbook of drawings executed on the front, during the Civil War, by Frank Leslie's artists. There you may find a note such as "men with oilcloth, very wet and muddy, . . . make them take better aim." This sketch was redrawn, then, in New York, after which it was engraved on wood. So that two draughtsmen and an engraver stood between you and the facts. Still, it is the closest eye-witness account, in pictorial form to be had.

Of course if the artist's impressions are based on insufficient knowledge, the results are disconcerting. For instance, some years ago a newspaper letter called

attentions to illustrations showing Wolfe reading Gray's elegy on the way to Quebec (while there was no moon that night to give light to read by), Montgomery's army on Lake Champlain in full uniform with bayonets (while there were few uniforms and bayonets in 1775), Prescott at Bunker Hill in full regimentals (while it is recorded that he was in civilian garb, including a long seer-sucker coat), Sergeant Jasper at Fort Moultrie picking up the Stars and Stripes (while his flag was that of South Carolina).

When we come to portraits, it is, as with views, a matter of the photograph or painting or drawing from the actual object—the portrait from life. And while in an engraving after such a portrait we are given, indeed, nature doubly translated, first into the impression of the painter and then into the traduction of the engraver, yet we get as close to the original as possible. There is, too, the possibility of comparing various engravings of a subject with the original or a photograph thereof, and with each other, so as to avoid the use of a copy or a copy of a copy, for one engraver often copied another. Of course a painted portrait shows the subject seen through the eyes—and the mental attitude—of the painter. And the photograph? Has that changed all? Not quite. That reproduces the momentary aspect, the mental and physical pose. The artist, on the other hand, if he be one of real power, can conceivably work on the synthetic plan, giving us a résumé, a reflection of the general character of the sitter. The good likeness frequently carries conviction, and is not that after all a determining matter in much testimony honestly given? Sigmund Jacob Apin, indeed, in his little books on the collecting of portraits (Nuremberg 1726) met objections regarding the likeness of a portrait by asking, "but *may* it not be like?"

It is interesting, too, to note how research in this specialty of historical illustration may develop expert knowledge. For instance, the subject of uniforms of the American Revolution has been worked up by an amateur enthusiast, and by H. A. Ogden, the illustrator, down to the very buttons and wristbands, while a "sub" specialty has been developed, that of Pennsylvania regiments during the same war, by the artist J. L. G. Ferris.

It really seems that the attitude has changed for the better. In our country the most noteworthy attempts at critical presentation of illustrations are probably Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History" (1884-89), Woodrow Wilson's "History of the American People" (1902), and Avery's unfinished "History of the United States" (1904-10). In the last two the list of illustrations is illuminating and aims to fix as nearly as possible the correctness of a given print, stating doubts frankly where they exist, as for instance in the case of the portrait of LaSalle.

Mr. I. N. Phelps Stokes, in a recent address before the Grolier Club, New York, on New York city views, showed an original drawing of the city, possibly done in 1642, of the authenticity of which he

was not yet quite convinced. The interesting point about it was that, while it came to light seven or eight years ago, it shows two windmills in New Amsterdam. Now, said he, it was only through a photograph of the Manatus map (long known as the "Vingboons Survey," owned by Henry Harrisse), taken a year or so ago, that it was found that there existed two windmills in the settlement instead of one. That is an example of studying views with the help of contemporary records.

The movement for historical teaching with the aid of illustrations has been voiced in recent years, for example in the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*. The intention is, of course, to put the pupil in accord with the spirit of the period which he is studying, and contemporary pictures seem to be selected as much as possible. At the time of this writing the Metropolitan Museum, of New York, has in preparation handbooks intended to show the teachers of history in the public schools what there is in the museum to help them illustrate their teaching. Obviously it is not only paintings, personal impressions of events and personages, which come into play here, but also objects of applied and decorative art, reflecting tastes and aspirations of given peoples and periods. In the little volume "Art museums and schools," the chapters by G. Stanley Hall on museums and teachers of history, and O. S. Tonks on museums and teachers of the classics, deal particularly with this matter.

All works of art directly or indirectly form records of the activity of mankind at various times, in various surroundings, under various conditions. That fact is obvious, at least in its superficial manifestations; references to it stare us in the face everywhere in the literature of art. The fact is graphically illustrated by art throughout the ages. In our own country, take as a simple illustration the products of certain painters of the middle of the last century—W. S. Mount, F. W. Edmonds, R. Caton Woodville, W. Ranney, Bingham. They painted the pioneers and trappers of the West, the flatboatmen of the Ohio, the Long Island farmer driving a horse trade, whittling, or listening to "Old Dan Tucker" scraped by the local fiddler. So they left records of costume and customs and mental viewpoint.

Less concerned, often, on the whole, with individual happenings than with the broader aspect, the more general trend, of occurrences, is the art of caricature. Some years ago there was exhibited in New York city a collection of about two hundred caricatures relating to the American Revolution. And a sub-division of this specialty is dealt with in R. T. Haines Halsey's "The Boston Port Bill as pictured by a contemporary London cartoonist" (Grolier Club, 1904). The Jacksonian period and the Civil War add their quotas to the pictorial comment on happenings offered by the comic art. The interest and value of the often searching sidelight which both political and social caricatures throw on our historic periods have been shown by the publication of numerous books dealing with individual persons, countries or periods in caricature. I might

add that in the case of the social history of our own land I dipped lightly into the subject in two articles for the "Critic" for August and September, 1905, which nevertheless necessitated the examination of every picture in every comic paper of any note that was procurable, published for fifty years after 1835.

Finally, apart from the more or less obvious illustration of outer manifestations—costume, customs, racial characteristics—which the printed picture holds for us, there is the deeper significance of art. The fact is that all art really worth while is an expression of its time and land. Paul Clemen even says that art "is the finest flower of the culture of a people; without a knowledge of the same the life of a people cannot be understood." And he is simply one in a long list of authors who have borne witness to this, including Taine, R. Eucken, Percy Gardner, W. M. Flinders Petrie, B. Handeke and Clive Bell (who asserts that "the idea is intolerable to scientific historians"). Characteristic instances of art as a manifestation of its time and place are not hard to find. The Gothic Cathedral, the Japanese color print, the Greek statue, the Persian miniature, British mezzotints, Chinese ceramics—or, in our own land, the "Hudson River School" of painting, civic art, colonial furniture, the sky-scraper, the bungalow—all these and so many others, are expressions of racial and national viewpoint and tendency.

In that point of view lie perhaps the deepest meaning, the richest possibilities, of art as an aid in the interpretation of history.

In the July volume of the "Hibbert Journal," "A Discourse on War," by the late Stopford A. Brooke, will appeal to historians because of its interpretation of the general spirit of war. In the same volume Harold Begbie has a most interesting comparison of religious conditions in Russia and England in his "Spiritual Alliance of Russia and England," and in this comparison Russia certainly does not suffer.

Dr. William Z. Ripley, professor of political economy in Harvard University, and one of the highest authorities on transportation problems in the United States, discusses "The Railroad Eight Hour Law" in the October "Review of Reviews." Dr. Ripley's article is by far the sanest and most non-partisan treatment of the Adamson Law which has yet appeared.

Albert B. Faust has an interesting article on "Swiss Emigration to the American Colonies in the Eighteenth Century" in "The American Historical Review" for October. The Swiss settlements were made in Pennsylvania and the Carolinas, he says, and flourished in spite of the hardships, obstructions, social ostracism and deprivation of rights and privileges imposed by the home government.

In the "London Quarterly Review" for July, St. Nihal Singh pays a high tribute to the retiring Viceroy of India in his article on "Lord Hardinge's Indian Administration." The success of Lord Hardinge, he claims, was due to his sympathy with Indian aspirations; his limitations, to his inability to effect military reform, and the great merit of his service the advance made in education.

Some Aspects of Supervised Study in History

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The fundamental problem of the high school student in beginning the study of history is how to study effectively. It is entirely within the truth to say that the vast majority of students do not know how, and ordinarily are not aware that the problem of how to study is fundamental. Unless they learn this important lesson early in the course, they are not likely to learn much else. The discouragement which comes with the failure to secure results will kill their interest in history, make their work a burden instead of a pleasure, and in many cases cause them to drop out of school. It is true that many students learn in the long run to study effectively unaided. But at best the learning will be a slow and wasteful process, and the vast majority never will acquire economical and effective study habits without assistance from the teacher.

The fundamental problem of every teacher, then, is to teach how to study. It is hard for one to understand what is going on in the mind of another, especially if the other is many years younger than oneself, and immature in his ways of thinking. Still harder is it if he is commencing the study of a subject in which one has had years of training. This is the problem that confronts the teacher, however, and unless he can find out how the minds of his boys and girls work, and how he can make them work better, he fails largely in his efforts to teach them, for of necessity his presentation and method must be based on that knowledge.

The function of the high school is not so much to instruct as to educate. The teacher must think of himself not as an instructor or imparter of information, but as a guide, to direct the student's efforts at self-help. The function of the teacher is to draw out the powers of the student, and to train him to exercise them in such a way as to acquire knowledge and gain power. This presupposes a knowledge of what those powers are to begin with, and how they may best be drawn out. Accordingly we must not limit our point of contact with the student to the recitation, but must develop a point of contact with his study. We must watch him at work, observe wherein he is weak, and train him in economical and effective habits of study.

Unsupervised study is inefficient study. As to what form the supervision shall take, there is room for difference of opinion. Local conditions may make impracticable many plans otherwise ideal. As to the need for supervising and controlling the study methods of the student, however, there is no room for difference of opinion. In the grades, the student is under almost constant supervision, both in study and in recitation. But when he enters the high school, although confronted with new types of subject matter, new conditions, new teachers, and other conditions which bewilder and confuse him, it is considered

time to remove the control, and leave him to his own devices in the study period.

It is true that he is usually assigned to study hall or assembly periods, where he is controlled in some measure, but this control, by the very nature of the case, can hardly extend beyond preventing noise and disorder. The teacher in charge of the study hall is not in position to give any effective assistance or instruction in study methods to students from many different classes and teachers. Students who are making conspicuous failures in their work are often assisted by the teacher at a conference period. But such assistance is necessarily incomplete and intermittent, for no teacher, after a hard day's work, can be expected to do as much of this as is really necessary or advisable. If properly done, moreover, it results in much duplication of work, since the same help is imparted individually or to a small group which could be imparted collectively to a whole class.

So, on the whole, the student is left to sink or swim, and many times he sinks. Any other course is practically impossible under the traditional system, since the administrative system as at present organized, is not adapted to any throughgoing supervision of study. Really effective work of this kind, necessitates a supervised study period, in which each teacher devotes some time each day to supervising study of his pupils and instructing them in better methods of work. In recent years many high schools have adopted administrative systems and programs which provide specifically for supervised study periods. The purpose of this paper is to present some of the results of such a system in the Hammond High School, and some of the lessons which the writer has learned in supervising the study of history among first-year and second-year high school students.

Practically all high schools give double periods to all science courses. It has been recognized that the necessities of the laboratory method make necessary supervision of most of the study of the student in science. It would seem that the student in historical science needs double periods as much as the student of natural science. The laboratory method of study is coming to have a larger place in the course every year, and the data of historical science are admittedly more complex and difficult to deal with. It would be hard to phrase an argument for double periods in natural science that would not apply with equal force to double periods for historical science.

The best kind of supervision, as Blaine said of protection, is the kind that eliminates the necessity for itself. There is a limit to the usefulness of supervision, a point at which it begins to hamper the development of the student rather than to assist it. Roughly speaking this point may be fixed at the end of the second year in high school. In general all freshman and sophomore courses should be supervised,

and all junior and senior courses unsupervised. We do not wish our infant industry to remain permanently in swaddling clothes. By the end of the second year, the student should have acquired study habits which will make further supervision useless, a waste of time for the teacher and a temptation to undue dependence on the part of the student.

Stating the question simply from the administrative point of view, certain courses may be designated as supervised courses and others as unsupervised courses. Most of the former will be those which normally will be taken by freshmen and sophomores, and most of the latter will be those which normally will be taken by juniors and seniors. If the supervised courses be given double periods, the system is flexible and no confusion will result, since the double periods articulate with the ordinary eight period daily program. The courses which freshmen and sophomores will normally take may be so scheduled that they need have no conflicts, and will spend the entire school day in school, with alternate periods of study and recitation. For the normal student, this program will mean little or no home study, which is a consummation devoutly to be wished.

An objection that will occur to the administrator is that such a program would be too costly, since many teachers would be able to handle only four classes a day, and very few more than five. Waiving the obvious consideration that four or five classes a day is enough, it can be said that this larger initial unit cost is largely compensated by the smaller rate of elimination, the lower percentage of repeaters, and the elimination of study halls for freshmen and sophomores. We found that the unit cost amounted to about the same under supervised study as without it. Moreover, granting that supervised study costs more, it is clear that it accomplishes more.

The teacher may object that such a system would take an undue amount of his time, even with fewer classes. The teacher may feel so before trying the system, but would change his attitude after working under it. After the first year of supervised study, the teachers of the Hammond High School were unanimous in desiring to retain the system. Though the system did demand much time, it was felt that the system solved so many problems that it was time well spent.

An administrative system that provides for a supervised study period directly following the recitation results in abolishing the arbitrary distinction between recitation and study. The teacher comes to regard the double period as a laboratory period in which the students work at history, and the teacher supervises and assists them, keeping in the background and leaving the students to themselves as much as the situation will permit. The recitation still remains, but its character is radically changed. Quizzing for the purpose of determining whether the students have studied largely disappears, because the teacher is in constant and intimate touch with their study, and knows what has been accomplished, without wasting the time of all concerned by going over ground already covered. The recitation becomes simply group study,

in which certain kinds of study are carried on which can best be done by the whole group thinking and working together. It can be devoted to material that is new, and to constructive group thinking. It becomes more real and vital, and really contributes to the progress of the group.

In the ordinary class group, there are students of widely different capacity. The supervised study period gives greater opportunity for the teacher to find out whether good work is due to long and patient application, or to exceptional ability and little actual study. It affords the teacher an opportunity to adjust the amount of work assigned and the difficulty of the tasks to the capacity of the student. It is a serious injustice to require the same objective standard of achievement from all students alike, for on the one hand it makes the work unduly hard for the lower half of the class, and on the other, makes so little demand on the brighter students, that they are able to perform their tasks with little effort, and do not grow in power. This condition is responsible for the well-founded criticism that our public schools tend to reduce all students to a dead level of achievement. Varying standards of work, both of quality and of quantity, must be set up. The supervised study period gives the teacher an opportunity to get at the facts upon which these standards must be based, and to put them into effect. A minimum standard must be adopted for the whole group and for the students who find this standard too easy to attain, additional tasks must be assigned.

In practise the minimum requirement usually amounts to a thorough understanding of the text, and an irreducible minimum of outside reading and notebook exercises. In order to fix a proper minimum standard, the teacher must consciously plan at the very outset the entire content of the course, and the division of that content into topic units for each day's work. He must decide what he expects all the students to get from each topic. This involves an outline of the topic, the assignment of notebook exercises, the formulation of questions calling for reflective thinking, and references to sources and secondary works. It will greatly facilitate fixing and maintaining such a standard, to put in the hands of each pupil mimeographed or printed copies of this syllabus,¹ as a sort of laboratory manual, or if this is impossible, to post in convenient places, sufficient copies to enable each student to make use of it in his study. Such definiteness on the part of the teacher encourages definiteness of aim and accomplishment on the part of the student. The economy and efficiency of so standardizing the minimum requirement are apparent. The student is put in possession of all the tools necessary for his study; it remains only for him to use them intelligently. The teacher's relation to the latter problem is the problem of supervising his study, his use of the tools.

¹ The writer's term syllabus for a semester course in ancient history and a semester course in medieval history is to be published by Atkinson Mentzer & Co., of Chicago, during the winter. It follows the form suggested above.

The exceptional student can be required to do more reading, bear larger burdens in the recitation, and perform more notebook tasks. He can also be assigned to pursue independent investigations of his own along lines in which he is particularly interested. The amount and character of such additional work should be adjusted by the teacher to each individual case.

The problem attitude should be fundamental in history study. The subject matter upon which the mind of the student is at work, may be treated as presenting a series of problems, which call for essentially the same kind of attack as algebra problems or chemistry experiments. The various forms of problems that occur in history study may be classified as follows:

- I. The study of secondary work, including the text, which involves:
 - A. Analysis.
 - B. Retention.
 - C. Reasoning—about the nature and importance of facts and their relation to each other.
- II. The study of source extracts, which involves:
 - A. Analysis.
 - B. Retention.
 - C. Comparison.
 - D. Reasoning—inductive and deductive—building up of facts.
- III. Notebook exercises (maps, themes, outlines) the DOING OF OBJECTIVE TASKS which necessitates study as above and is the APPLICATION of its results.

In supervising the student's attack on these various problems, there are three problems:

1. How to motivate the study.
2. How the student should study.
3. How the teacher should teach the student to study.

The first is the problem of the teacher in making the assignment; the second is the student's own problem of method, which the teacher should solve for him in advance; the third is the problem of the technique of the supervised study period.

The first essential to effective study is to arouse a mental state which finds its logical expression in active and purposeful effort. This involves arousing interest and curiosity. The pupil should be made to feel that there is a real problem to be solved, and that it is a problem that he would like to solve. If the student feels that the assignment is simply part of the daily grind, his performance is apt to be lifeless and perfunctory. If there is a real desire to find out some new facts that promise to be important, or to perform a task which he is satisfied will improve his knowledge and grasp of the subject, the study will be properly motivated. In this sense, the teacher is a sort of advertising agent for the problem assigned; he must feel enthusiasm for his article of trade, and must have the ability to transmit that enthusiasm to others. Care should be taken, however, not to indulge in any superficial and shallow displays of interest or enthusiasm, for the student sees through the mask. It is essential that the student be really made to see the im-

portance of the problem and the interest and value involved in it.

When we approach the problem of how the student should study, we are confronted with the fundamental fact of individual differences in ideational type. Many students must lay more emphasis in study on one kind of imagery than on another. One girl studies best by moving her lips, and creating kinesthetic images, another by consciously forming vivid mental pictures, another by forming verbal images, etc. The teacher must diagnose each case as it comes before him, and with a full understanding of the pupil's peculiar mental makeup, prescribe a method of study which best utilizes his peculiar imagery. This demands a careful examination of each student who appears to differ from the normal, with perhaps the use of some simple psychological tests, and a personal conference in which the pupil and the teacher together work out the study method adapted to his case. Thus, by reason of the supervision of study, the course is adapted to the student in degree of difficulty and in quantity, and his method of attack is adapted to his individual characteristics and abilities.

Perhaps 75 per cent. of the class, however, have a complex ideational type, and respond to various kinds of imagery in practically the same degree. In practise, therefore, the teacher should work out a normal study method, which is calculated to fit the mass of the class. It is impossible, in an article of this length, to discuss the possible variants from the normal, and the appropriate study methods for each. All that can be done here is to discuss the method of study which fits the normal student, and to leave the prescribing of study methods for the abnormal student to the individual case.

The writer's idea of the proper study methods for the normal student will be best presented by giving in full the study instructions which he hands out to his pupils. No claim is made that these instructions are perfect; in fact they have been revised many times in the course of the year, and will probably be revised many times again. These instructions have been the result of the inductive experience of the study period. It is not claimed that any particular student should follow all the suggestions given, merely that every student will find suggestions of value which he can apply with profit, and that most of the instructions, particularly those of a routine character, in which uniformity is desirable in itself, should be followed by all. These instructions follow:

HOW TO STUDY HISTORY.²

The most important thing for history students to learn early in the course is "How to Study the Lesson Effectively" and "How to Perform Well the Tasks that the Teacher Assigns." If you do not learn these things well, you are not likely to learn much else. These directions are prepared to help you study effectively. If you will follow them conscientiously and carefully in the preparation of each day's lesson you will be richly repaid in the satisfaction that comes from doing things well.

² These instructions, complete, are to be published as a part of each syllabus mentioned in note 1.

I. HOW TO STUDY THE TEXT-BOOK:

A. In the first place, be sure that you understand the assignment and know just exactly what the teacher wants done. If you are in doubt on any point, ask the teacher to explain more definitely what is required.

B. Review the main points of the lessons that you have had, that are related to the subject of the new lesson. Five or ten minutes spent in a review of this sort will make it easier to master the new assignment.

C. Read over the assignment once to get the main ideas.

D. Look up the meaning and pronunciation of all new words and names.

E. Wherever any reference is made to any place (city, mountain range, river, country, etc.) look it up on the map and fix it in your memory so firmly that you can locate it without hesitation on the large map in the class-room.

F. Study the maps in the text-book, and try to estimate the importance of geographical facts in determining historical events. You cannot understand history without geography.

G. Underline neatly with pencil sentences or words that seem to you particularly important or helpful. Be careful, however, not to do too much of this, and be sure that you do it neatly.

H. Memorize all important names and dates.

I. In reading the text-book with the purpose of remembering what you read, you are confronted with two problems:

1. To understand thoroughly what you are reading.
2. To fix all those points in memory so that you can reproduce them.

You will be greatly helped in doing these things by making an outline of the assignment, for you must understand what the book means in order to make a good outline, and the act of writing it down fixes it in mind so that you can remember it better.

Usually each paragraph in your text-book has a topic summary in heavy type at the beginning of the paragraph, or in the margin. Read this. What does it mean? Then read the paragraph. What does each sentence mean? How does it add to the topic of the paragraph? Are there some points in the paragraph of more importance than others? If so, what is the relation between the important topics and the less important ones? Do the latter explain the former? Do they give you details of the former? Try to condense the meaning of each point into four or five well chosen words. Are there any points in the paragraph which do not belong under the topic summary of that paragraph? If you are sure that they do not, what topic summary would you write out to cover them? Do you understand the paragraph fully, the importance of each sentence and part of a sentence in it, and the relations that exist among the parts?

When you are sure that you understand the paragraph fully, write out an outline of it. Write down the main topic summary under a Roman numeral (I, II). Then write down the first main sub-topic under a capital letter (A). Under this sub-topic enter the details that explain it under Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3). Then pick out your second main sub-topic (B), and under it enter its sub-topics. Go through the whole paragraph in this way.

How is the paragraph which you have outlined related to the main topic of the lesson? How does it add to the development of that topic? Look up from your work and see if you can remember the points of the paragraph and give them in your own words. If alone, you may find it helpful to say them aloud. If working with a classmate, you can repeat them to him or her in the same way, and have him or her criticize your recitation, you in turn helping him or her. If working in the study room, go through them silently or moving your lips. If you cannot give the

points of the paragraph, study your outline and the paragraph until you can.

When you have done this to your satisfaction, pass on to the next paragraph, and study it in the same way. In what way is each paragraph related to the main topic, and to the paragraph which went before? What more do you know about the main topic after studying the paragraph than you did before? When you have outlined all the paragraphs, look up from your work and see if you can summarize the important points of the whole lesson in the same way as above. If you cannot, study your outline and the text-book again until you can.³

While this seems a great deal of trouble you will find that you can get your lesson more quickly and thoroughly by this method than without it. As you become more advanced in your work and become more experienced in study methods, you can gradually reduce the amount of writing and outline, if you go through the same process of thinking as if you were making an outline. In other words, you should always make an outline in your mind, even if you do not commit it to paper. Keep up the outlining, however, until you can get the teacher's permission to drop it. On very difficult lessons, you may find it useful to outline on paper, even after years of history study.

J. Study the pictures as carefully as the printed portion of your text-book. Many students make the mistake of simply looking at the pictures, and not studying them. One can learn just as much from the pictures as from the printed words. Close your eyes and try to see the events or persons or places of the lesson. Make a mental picture of the lesson. Try to imagine yourself as being in that place, or as doing the things of which the lesson tells. Try to make the lesson as real to your mind as if you had actually been living in those times, and had been an actor in great events.

K. Refer to the syllabus and look over the outline. Are there any points in that outline which are not in your own or in the text-book? If so, look in the list of suggested readings, and try to get information on that point from other books.

L. Refer to the questions in the syllabus and at the end of the chapter in your text-book. Try to answer each one of these, either in writing or in your mind, carefully considering all the facts. Make a list of other questions that occur to you in regard to the lesson, and bring them to class. These questions may be classified as follows:

1. The causes of an event or movement.
2. The results of an event or movement.
3. The importance of certain facts. (Why do we study them?)
4. The right or wrong of an action or an institution. (What would you have done?)
5. The moral character or mental greatness of men.
6. The motives or reasons for doing certain things, of men or of governments.
7. Comparisons of men, institutions, customs, nations, etc., with others you have studied.

Thinking about the lesson in this way will make the facts easier to remember. will make the lesson more interesting, and will make you a better thinker.

Remember that the test of your lesson preparation is

³ An excellent work on the peculiar problems involved in the study of history is Professor Johnson's "Teaching of History," recently published. Professor Johnson's suggestions as to the method of studying the text-book are practically the same as those suggested above. It is fair to state, however, that these suggestions are the outcome of class-room experience, and were developed before the writer read Professor Johnson's book.

your ability to recite on a given topic, or on the whole of the lesson, giving all the important points under each topic, and making clear the importance of each, expressing your opinions of men and institutions, and answering the questions expressed above (in L) without any assistance from the teacher, either by prompting or by asking questions. If you can do that, you have prepared your lesson well.

II. READING IN OTHER BOOKS:

Your text-book does not contain all the material that you should study in order to get a proper understanding of your work. Only the most important things are in the text-book. Often your text-book states a fact in so general a way and so briefly that you cannot understand it without reading more about it in some other work. The text-book contains only the viewpoint of one man; to understand history properly you should get the viewpoint of several authors, and also read from the original sources and documents.

There are two kinds of books to which you will be referred: Source books, which contain documents or sources from which we have gained important knowledge or which are interesting as illustrations of statements made in your text-book, and secondary works, which are books like your text-book, but usually more detailed and complete. All secondary works are based on a study of sources or documents, some of which are contained in the source books. In no good secondary work will you find a statement which the author could not prove by reference to original sources. It is important to distinguish between these two kinds of books, for they must be studied in different ways.

A. Source books. (Before reading this section read and study carefully the section on "How We Know About the Past.")⁴ Source books are collections of some of the most important and helpful written documents. All the operations of external criticism have been performed with these documents; they have been restored and read. It remains only to interpret them, and to ascertain from them the facts of which they are the traces left to us.

In studying sources as supplementary reading, apply to them all the tests of internal or higher criticism, and read all the sources that you can find on your point with a view to comparing them and drawing conclusions from them. Follow these directions:

1. Find out what you can about the author. In most source books, a paragraph or two at the beginning of each selection or in the back of the book gives this information. You can also learn much about the author while reading the document, just as you can often learn the character of a man by hearing him speak or reading his letters.
2. Determine whether the document is an official record, an account by an eye-witness, or an account written by one who got his information from others.
3. Study the document carefully to get what it means. Usually it will be necessary to outline the document just as you would outline your text-book. Follow other directions in the section on "How to Study the Text-book" as to new words, use of maps, etc.
4. Apply the tests for good faith and accuracy. Consider each statement of the document separately, and ask if there is any reason to doubt the accuracy or truthfulness of the statement. Ask all the questions given in the section on "How We Know About the Past."
5. Find any other documents that you can in the same or other source books, that bear on the same point. If unable to do so, ask the teacher's help in finding them. Study them in the same way as you have studied the first one.

⁴ Section V of the instructions contains a short summary of the operations of historical research.

6. Studying all the documents that you have read and criticized, and applying to them the principles given at the last of the section on "How We Know About the Past," come to a decision as to what facts are proved, and what facts are not proved or are doubtful. Be sure that for each one you can quote from the documents definite statements as to these facts. Write these in your notebooks, together with your reasons for considering them proved or doubtful, and the proper quotations from the documents themselves.

7. Your permanent notebook should have a section in which you can put the results of your source studies. Each study should be recorded in this notebook. By checking this notebook record the teacher will know the amount and quality of your source work. Your notes should be in the following form:

- a. The topic on which you are studying.
- b. A description of all the documents studied, with the names of their authors, if known, and the name of the source book and pages on which it is to be found.
- c. A brief sketch of what you have found about the author.
- d. The outlines of each document or notes on each made in studying it to get its meaning.
- e. What you have found out by applying the tests for good faith and accuracy.
- f. All the information asked for in c, d and e, for each document you have studied in addition to the first one.
- g. The facts you consider proved, your reasons for considering them proved, and quotations from the sources to prove your statements.
- h. The facts you considered disproved or doubtful, with your reasons for considering them disproved.

B. Secondary works. The chief reason for reading in secondary works is to gain more information than your text-book contains. The chief purpose of studying source books is to understand how the historian works with documents. Since the purpose of studying secondary works is to gain more information, you should study them in much the same way as you study your text-book. In some cases you should make a careful outline of the selection. In other cases, where the information is not entirely new to you, it will be sufficient to note down point by point the new facts, or to note the points, if any, in which the author disagrees with the author of your text-book. There is a great deal of room for differences in ways of looking at the same facts. Where you find disagreement try to reach your own conclusion as to which is right, by further reading and thinking of your own.

On some readings which are interesting simply because they seem to make the lesson more real to you, you need take no notes at all. You must be the judge, ordinarily of how to study the selection and of how carefully to study it. Sometimes the teacher will assign definite readings to you or to the whole class, and specify the method of study. In general, a knowledge of what you have read, definite enough for you to give some new information of importance to the class in the recitation, will be evidence that you have studied the selection carefully enough.

Your permanent notebook should have a section for readings in secondary works. This section should contain a record of every reading you have made, as follows:

- a. Topic.
- b. Name of author, name of book, publisher, city and date of publication, and the pages read. (Robinson, James H., "The Development of Modern Europe." Ginn & Co., Boston, 1907, pp. 206-220.)
- c. Whatever notes, outlines, etc., you have made.
- d. Your opinion of the value of the reference and of the book.
- e. Reports to the class. In reading any selection in sec-

ondary works, or in studying any sources, you should always keep in mind the class. You may be called upon by the teacher at any time to report to the class the reading you have done and what source investigations you have been making. The purpose of these reports is to introduce new and interesting material into the recitation, and to train you in expressing your knowledge fluently to others. Try to read and study selections that the class would be interested in hearing you report. Often you will be asked to prepare certain readings or source studies especially for the purpose of bringing them before the class.

III. THE NOTEBOOK: ⁵

Notebooks are of two kinds, the study notebook which is to contain the outlines you make in studying the lesson, and the permanent notebook which is to contain:

1. Records of source studies.
2. Records of readings in secondary works.
3. Maps, assigned by the teacher.
4. Special outlines of importance, assigned by the teacher.
5. Themes on special topics, including the term report.

The first two have already been discussed. Both of these kinds of work should be kept in separate sections of the notebook. In another section of the notebook should come the maps, themes and outlines, in the order in which they are assigned by the teacher.

A. General directions: Perform every notebook assignment at home, while it is fresh in your mind. Use ink for everything. Aim for neatness and accuracy. The quality of your work will be judged largely by the quality of your notebook work.

As each assignment is made enter it in your table of contents. This table of contents should come first in your notebook, and should give the number of the exercise and the page of your notebook on which it will be found. Follow this form:

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

1. Map—Peoples of Western Asia	p. 1
2. Outline—Important Discoveries of the Prehistoric Period	p. 3
Etc., etc., etc.	

B. The Maps: When you are assigned an outline map to fill in with certain material that the teacher will assign, you should follow these instructions in order:

1. Using pencil, trace on the map the boundaries needed to make the map clear. Make the pencil marks very light.
2. When sure that the boundaries are accurate, trace them with pen and ink, and when dry, erase the pencil lines.
3. With dots in ink locate all important cities.
4. With printed letters in ink name all rivers, cities, countries, seas, islands, etc. Print the names of cities in small letters, thus—Paris. Print the names of rivers in small capitals, thus—RHINE RIVER. Print the names of countries in larger capitals. This will prevent confusion.
5. With colored crayon, color carefully each country, taking care:
 - a. To use a circular motion of the crayon.
 - b. To bear very lightly on the crayon.
 - c. Not to go too fast.
 - d. To get the color on smoothly.
 - e. Not to run over the boundaries.
 - f. Not to get the color on too thick.
6. With blue crayon, draw a narrow edging, about an eighth of an inch wide, just inside the borders of each body of water.
7. In some corner of the map where there is plenty of

room, make a key. In a square drawn with pen and ink, put a block of each color used, and after it print in SMALL CAPITALS the name of the country represented by that color.

8. In a conspicuous place on the map, where there is plenty of room, PRINT IN LARGE CAPITALS THE TITLE of the map, so that it is plain what the map is meant for.

C. The outlines: Frequently you will be assigned to make an outline of some event or movement or period. This outline should be made at once, while the topic is still fresh in your mind. You have already been instructed in the section on "How to Study the Text-book" how to make an outline. Apply the same principles to the making of these special outlines, picking out first the large topics, and then the sub-topics under each. Make these outlines as brief and compact as possible. This means that you must condense everything into as few words as possible to make your meaning clear. Following is an example of a good outline:

OUTLINE—THE FIRST CRUSADE.

- I. Growth of the power of the Turks.
 - A. The Turks were an Asiatic people related to the Huns.
 - B. They had driven the Arabs out of the Holy Land.
 - C. They had driven the Eastern Empire out of Asia Minor.
- II. The Eastern Emperor asks the Pope for military aid.
 - A. The fact that he asked the Pope rather than the Holy Roman Emperor shows that the Pope was the most important personage in all Europe.
- III. The Council of Clermont, 1095 A.D.
 - A. Called by the Pope.
 - B. Composed largely of French nobles and clergy.
 - C. The Council decides to send an armed expedition to the Holy Land for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre.
- IV. Causes of the Crusades.
 - A. Desire for adventure.
 - B. Religious enthusiasm.
 - C. Desire for land.

Etc., etc., etc.

D. The themes: From time to time the teacher will assign themes to be written on certain subjects. The first thing to do is to read in secondary works and source books and gather material for your theme. Do not write anything until you understand properly the subject of your theme and until you have read at least one book besides your text-book. Do not introduce anything into the theme that does not bear directly on your subject. *Do not use the words of the book. Use your own.* Make your theme definite, accurate, original and brief. It is not the quantity of matter you write, but the quality, that makes a good theme.

At the very end of the theme give the names of the books you have consulted, thus:

Robinson, J. H., "Readings in European History," pp. 196-202.

Often these themes will take the form of letters, diaries and other writings of a personal character, written as if you were a participant in the events, or an actual eye-witness.

E. The term report: During the term you will write at least one long theme of from 1,200 to 1,500 words on some special topic, on which you are to read a great deal and find out all that you can. Work on this term report will begin about the end of the first six weeks. You may choose your own topic, after consultation with the teacher, either from the work already covered, or from work in the latter part of the term's work if you are more interested in that, and desire to read ahead. You are expected to read all that you can find on your topic, in at least three books, and to study in a scholarly way all the sources that bear on your topic.

⁵ The subject of notebook work is more fully discussed by the writer in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for October, 1916.

As you read these books, take notes on all important points, noting down carefully the page on which your information was found. When you write up your report, you should write it from these notes, and refer to the books themselves as little as possible. Your final draft should contain footnotes, which will give the reader of your report the page and book which is your authority for every important statement you make. You should average at least two footnotes to the page. Often you can explain some point in detail much better by adding a footnote. Your footnotes should follow this form:

¹ Robinson's Readings, p. 202.

² The Teutonic Knights, referred to above, went to the shores of the Baltic Sea after the crusades were over, and warred against the heathen Slavs. Later the order came under the control of the Hohenzollern House, and its possessions were the nucleus of the Duchy of Prussia. Thatcher & Schwill, "Europe in the Middle Age," p. 335.

If maps would add to the clearness or interest of your report, the teacher will give you outline maps which you can fill in and use to illustrate your report.

At the end of your report, on a separate page, should come your bibliography, or list of books used. First give the name of the author, then the full name of the book, then the name of the publisher, then the city and date of publication. Then in a sentence or two give your opinion of the merits of the book and its usefulness to you in working up your report. Follow this form:

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Oman, Charles. "A History of England." Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1898. I found Oman useful for the following points . . .

Thatcher, Oliver J., and Schwill, Ferdinand. "Europe in the Middle Age." Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1896. This work was useful to me for the following reasons.

From these instructions, it will sufficiently appear, I take it, what the writer's ideas of the proper methods of study for the mass of the class are. Further discussion would therefore be redundant, as the instructions are self-explanatory. It is apparent that the course has been largely standardized, both as to content, and as to method of attack. And yet as has been pointed out, it is sufficiently elastic, since the amount of work required is varied with the ability of the individual pupil concerned, and variations from the standard study methods are permitted to those who will benefit by using other methods. For the mass of the class, the standardization is of great advantage, for the pupil has before him in black and white practically everything that relates to the organization of the subject matter of the course, the character of the tasks assigned, and the proper methods for performing them. Where a variation from standard is permitted, it is always for cause, and much is gained over a system or lack of system, where there are no standards objectively fixed, except those which the students may fix themselves.

It remains to discuss the third problem, namely how to put these study methods into effect, how to get the students to study in the proper manner. The most important feature of supervised study is the technique of the study period. The teacher is the fundamental fact in any system of education; the administrative system exists only that he may do his work effectively.

The effectiveness of the supervised study period depends entirely upon the enthusiasm with which the teacher embraces his opportunity, and the technique which he develops for carrying it out. In the hands of a lukewarm and careless teacher the period may mean nothing; in the hands of an alert and enthusiastic teacher, it may mean everything.

There is an element of danger in supervised study, the danger, namely, that the teacher may use it to solve all the student's problems for him, thus deadening his initiative and retarding his mental growth. This danger makes it necessary that the teacher should clearly articulate his purposes and aims in the study period, and hew strictly to the line, resisting the temptation, which is bound to come, to help too much. It has been well said that the purpose of supervising study is not to level the mountain but to train capable mountain climbers; it is not to solve the problem for the student, but to show him how to solve it. The teacher having developed his ideas as to the proper methods of study for various types of subject matter and for various types of students, it is his function to teach those methods to the student, and then see to it that the student follows them.

The first step, as has been indicated, is to reduce the standard study method to a definite form, and to formulate it in an organized body of suggestions. Much time is saved by handing out at the beginning of the term printed or mimeographed sheets, containing whatever suggestions of the sort the teacher may desire to make. These should be ready for the first meeting of the class.

At the first meeting, an informal discussion should be held on the question of how to study the textbook. The sheets should be distributed and the various suggestions discussed. When the first textbook assignment is made, the teacher should conduct group study of the text, all of the students having before them the textbook and the instructions. An outline should be worked out by the group, in accordance with the instructions, and placed on the board. After the lesson has been worked through in this way, students can be asked to recite on topics, as a test. Then the opinion of the group should be asked as to what dates should be memorized, and what are the most important things to remember, etc. A beginning can be made on the questions for reflective thinking on the syllabus. In this way the class is introduced to the study problem inductively.

This group study should be discontinued as soon as possible, as soon, namely, as the principles are thoroughly grasped. It may be resorted to time after time during the term, when problems of a new sort, or problems presenting particular difficulty are before the class. The tendency is to abuse it, however, and such tendency should be carefully guarded against. After the first few days of the term, the students should be set to study the assignment individually. The teacher should go from desk to desk, making sure that the student understands the meaning of the suggestions and is applying them effectively. If he is not doing so, the teacher should state the requirement more clearly and set the student right. If a

question arises, which the teacher has reason to believe may be troubling most of the class, the attention of all may be called to the question, and the explanation made to the group.

What has been said applies, of course, only to the normal study method. If in his assistance of individuals, the teacher has reason to believe that the student is not benefitting by the methods that the rest of the class are using, he should make an appointment with that student, at which time an endeavor should be made to find out the difficulty, and if necessary to change the prescription.

As soon as the principles of study involved in studying the textbook are generally grasped, but not before, it is safe to take up the question of note-book exercises. Group study is hardly necessary in beginning work on this type of problem, and the pupil should be set to work individually, while the teacher goes from desk to desk suggesting and supervising.

The last form of problem which should be attempted is the study of sources. To take it up earlier is likely to lead to confusion and mental indigestion. The first assignment of source study should be introduced by a discussion of the principles of historical research, what documents are, what kinds of documents there are, how the historian uses them. This discussion, of course, must be on the intellectual level of the high school student, and must be as objective as possible. It is a help to include in the printed instructions a four or five page section on the subject of how we know about the past, to be used as a basis for the discussion.⁶

Assignments in the study of sources should also be standardized. The teacher should arrange a series of ten or twelve carefully graded source exercises, ranging from questions of the utmost simplicity, to problems involving considerable examination, evaluation and comparison of documents, and the writing of considerable themes based on that study.

The steps in teaching how to study may then be summarized as follows: first, the discussion and study of the principles as embodied in the instructions; second, group study under the direction of the teacher, applying the instructions to a definite assignment; third, individual study under the close supervision of the teacher. These steps should be completed in the first month or six weeks of the term. From then on, the teacher, on principle, should leave the student alone as much as possible, supervising his study directly only on problems of especial difficulty, or when he is slumping and losing ground.

It would be a great mistake to suppose that the student gets no benefit from the supervised study period after this period of a month or six weeks. He studies history at a definite time and for a definite period of time each day. He has just come from the recitation, and is in the subject attitude of mind. All of the conditions, physical and otherwise, necessary to effective study, are controlled by the teacher. He

is surrounded by various special tools for history study, such as books, wall maps, pictures, etc. He is with students who are working on the same problems as himself. And it is possible for him at any time to get the assistance of the teacher when in the teacher's judgment it is necessary. In other words there are four advantages in a supervised study period, first, the assurance that the student studies his lesson at all; second, the opportunity to instruct him in proper methods of study; third, the assurance that he follows instructions; and fourth, the opportunity to control in his interest all the physical and psychical conditions, necessary to efficient study.

The Hammond High School is now in its second year of supervised study. The day is divided into six seventy-minute periods, of which at least thirty must be devoted to study. Every class in the school has its supervised study period. A change to the system of double periods for some classes, and single classes for others, along the lines outlined in the first part of this paper, has been under consideration, but has not yet been made.

The results have abundantly justified the system. The teachers are unanimous in approval of the system, and are strongly in favor of retaining it. It has resulted in fewer failures, more efficient work on the part of all students, and more satisfactory conditions for the teachers. It has solved the fundamental problem of the student, how to study, and the fundamental problem of the teacher, how to teach the student to study.

The College Entrance Examination Board has published a pamphlet prepared by the Readers in History for 1916, containing "specimen answers written by college candidates in history." The purpose of the pamphlet is to present to teachers an actual illustration of the methods of grading pursued by the Readers in History. Eight examination papers are reproduced, two for each of the four historical fields; one paper in each subject is selected from those grading about ninety, the other paper is selected from those grading about forty. Copies of the pamphlet can be obtained from the Board (431 West 117th Street, New York City) for 25 cents.

In "The Teaching of Oral English," by Miss Emma M. Bolenius (Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co.), there are many suggestions of value to history teachers. In addition to the general emphasis upon the care in the use of English in recitation the book contains chapters upon "The Debate in English History," "A Mythological Symposium," "Oral Composition in History," "The History Club," and "Organizing a Government as a Class Exercise." Suggestions are made for easy methods of grading oral recitations and debates. The author believes that outside reference reading in history can be made of much practical value by requiring one minute or very brief reports upon it. She describes how a class was developed into a history club. In the club the class was organized with students as officers, and they discussed subjects to be found in the text-book and in the outside reading.

⁶ Such a section is included in the writer's instructions, but is not given here on account of lack of space. It will appear in the forthcoming syllabi.

Construction for History in the Grades

BY MARY A. WHITNEY.

NOTE.—The following article and the accompanying illustrations are printed in the MAGAZINE through the courtesy of Prof. Baker Brownell, editor of "Teaching," published by the State Normal School at Emporia, Kansas. Miss Whitney's article appears in "Teaching" for October 15, 1916 (Vol. II, No. 15).—EDITOR.

The day is past when the study of history is said to be dull and uninteresting. Two things have wrought the miracle. First: we have learned to think history in terms of ourselves, of our surroundings, of our likes and dislikes, of our dress, of our commerce, labor and foreign relations. This has given the past a certain relation to the present which has vitalized it and made it real. Second: we have begun to reproduce it in concrete form. If the class is studying the Pilgrims, they make the Mayflower, and dress a doll as the Pilgrims dressed. If they are studying the Spanish Armada, they build in the sand pan the geographical situation, fold paper ships, and actually work out the attack. Thus every incident in history, with a possible few exceptions, can be visualized by some form of construction work. Some will be done by the teacher as illustrative work because too difficult for the pupils to do. Most of it, though, can be done by the pupils as self-expression.

KINDS AND MATERIALS.

Construction work may be of the following kinds and materials: (1) Black-board illustration using free-hand drawing, stencils or "cut-out" pictures: (2) Paper folding for caps, boats, tables, chairs, tents, cradles, flags: (3) Paper cutting, posters or upright figures: (4) Weaving, raffia or reed, for baskets, and hammocks; woolens for rugs, mats, blankets; beads of wampum, headbands: (5) Color work, pen and ink, crayons, water colors, oils, dyes: (6) Wood chairs, tables, beds, wagons, and so forth. A sharp jack-knife and the crates for fruit, or cigar boxes can be used. Best of all is basswood one-eighth inch by six inches by any length, 5c. per foot at Tschudy Hard Wood Lumber Company, Kansas City, Mo.: (7) Cardboard for houses, wagons and so forth. Corrugated paper is excellent: (8) Clay; almost everything imaginable can be made in clay. An excellent quality can be obtained from the Western Stoneware Company, Monmouth, Ill., \$7.50 per barrel of 500 pounds. A good substitute is Plasticine. Clay when hard can be painted with water colors and baked in the ordinary

oven: (9) Sand table; a good one can be made by taking an old table, say three feet by five feet, and nailing around it boards five inches by one-half inch. Line it with white table oilcloth which covers the bottom and comes up over all the edges. In this use sand, salt, cotton or sawdust. For water, use plain window glass over blue paper. Iron pans eighteen inches by ten inches by two inches, painted blue inside, make good individual sand pans. Pasteboard



HISTORY PATTERNS.

suit boxes make good substitutes for a sand table. If none of these can be secured, spread papers on a table or on the floor and use sand, salt, or sawdust on it. In the sand table, more ideas can be developed and more problems worked out and more busy work taken care of than in any other kind of construction work: (10) Salt; besides using this alone in the sand table (Eskimo study), it may be used in a cooked form. Take one-half cup of salt, one-fourth cup corn starch; mix thoroughly; add one-fourth cup of cold water; stir until smooth; set on stove to cook, stirring constantly until it thickens into one lump. Take it off immediately and squeeze with hands as you would clay or wax. Mold into forms desired: (11) Pictures, discussed elsewhere: (12) Miscellaneous, toothpicks, clothespins, tissue

paper, crepe paper, tin foil, toy animals, animal crackers, boxes of all kinds, cotton, sparkle, beads, horse hair, glue paste, soda fountain straws, peanuts, walnuts, almonds, cloves, corn stalks, corn husks, wire, chicken feathers, adhesive tape, court plaster.

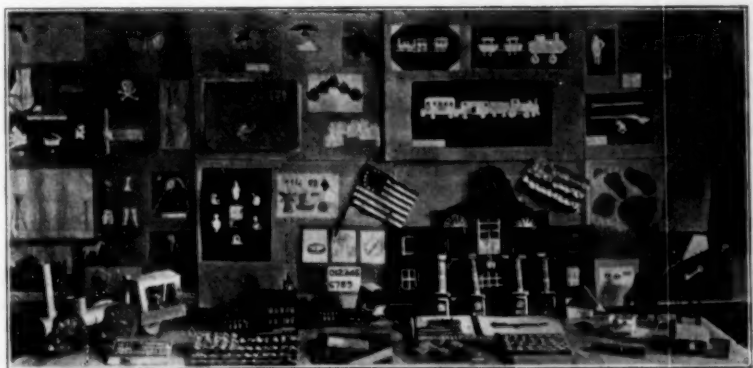
Things to make usually suggest themselves. The following are easy and suitable:

PRIMARY GRADES.

Indian life, the home: Moundbuilders, clay, sand, salt, dirt: Cliff dwellers, clay, coal, soap stone: Pueblos, clay, paper cutting: Plains Indians, wigwam, tepee, wickiup, hogan, lodge, long house, cloth, paper, chamois skin, kid gloves, sticks, wire, branches, corrugated paper, toothpicks: Eskimo igloo, seals, polar bears, dogs, sleds, cotton, clay, wood, leather, chamois skin: Indian life, childhood, papoose, cradle, hammock, dress: Indian life, customs, canoe, bow and arrow, snow shoe, moccasin, knife, war bonnet, shield, battle ax, tomahawk, war club, war shirt, peace pipe, pottery, totem pole, wampum, writing, blankets: Pilgrims, Mayflower, Plymouth Rock, cradle, fireplace, herb still, pewter platter, Indians and corn and fish, Thanksgiving dinner (turkey, loaf of bread, mashed potatoes, apples, pumpkin pie, plum pudding), map of Plymouth harbor: Washington, soldiers, hat, tent, gun, horse, tree, hatchet, house, mother and trunk and the sea, flower bed and George written in it, rows of soldiers and drum: Local history, log cabin, a fort, guns, prairie schooner, pony express: Memorial Day, the flag, a cannon, tents, wreath of flowers: Heroes of other times, Joseph's coat of many colors, Moses in the bulrushes and his smiting the rock, David and his sling, harp, Alexander's black horn, Bucephalus, Robert Bruce and his spider, Joan of Arc and her being burned at the stake: Columbus and his three ships: The flag, class make it of paper, in clay, paper folding and so forth.

FOURTH GRADE.

American explorers, Columbus in chains, De Soto buried in river, Magellan's route marked on a tennis ball, Drake and a Spanish ship as a prize: Virginia life, John Smith and his compass, first church, the pirates' flag, black with white skull and crossbones: New England life, Miles Standish's sword, John Winthrop's collar and hat, John Eliot's Bible, King Philip's war bonnet, New England fireplace, logs, andirons, Dutch oven, hour glass: Dutch, Quakers and others, Dutch houses, Dutch girl, Penn's Quaker dress, southern plantation, cotton, tobacco: New France, traps, doll dressed as a Jesuit priest: George Washington, as a surveyor, tripod, compass, raft for journey to Ohio: Benjamin Franklin, boy with loaves of bread, gets lightning, "Poor Richard's" almanac.



HISTORY CONSTRUCTION WORK.

Flanagan, Chicago, 60c.; The Plan Book; With Scissors and Paste, Grace Goodridge, A. Flanagan, Chicago, 25c.; Normal Instructor, The Cut of Book, Ruth O. Dyer, A. Flanagan, Chicago, 50c.

The advantages of this construction work are: (1) Busy

work; (2) compels accurate knowledge first; (3) stimulates that activity; (4) provides a valuable means of individual initiative and self-expression; (5) gives a definiteness and a permanency to information and makes history a reality.



HISTORY PATTERNS.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The Cincinnati meetings of the American Historical Association, held at the Hotel Sinton and the University of Cincinnati, December 26 to 30, 1916, were well attended, and proved fully as interesting as usual. About four hundred persons registered, among whom were many younger men and women, while quite a few of the older members were not in attendance. The local committee on arrangements succeeded admirably in entertaining the members. Most of the meetings were held in the headquarters hotel, thus keeping the visitors together and making it possible for them to enjoy those personal conferences and conversations which mean so much to all. One delightful day was spent at the University of Cincinnati, where the members were the guests of the university at luncheon. A reception was held on Thursday evening after the presidential addresses; a smoker for men was provided on Wednesday evening, and Mr. and Mrs. Charles P. Taft entertained at tea on Friday. The courtesies of the city's clubs and of the Ohio Historical Society were extended to the guests.

The Program Committee provided for conferences upon the various fields of history, including ancient history, English history, American history, European history, the history of China and Japan, and the history of Constantinople. The number of papers closely related to present-day affairs was greater than usual. At one evening session three papers dealt with historical phases of the present war; another session discussed the European peace congresses of the nineteenth century; at other meetings there were presented such topics as the recent history of China, the American government of the Philippines, and the influence of the war on the teaching of history. It is noteworthy, also, that a large proportion of the papers read were prepared by the younger members of the association.

Two conferences on the teaching of history were held. The first of these discussed the field and method of the elementary course in college history. There were seventeen speakers provided for this session representing various sections of the country and different types of institutions. The general sentiment was strongly in favor of European history for this course, although there was some divergence of views as to whether the entire field of European history should be covered or only medieval history or modern history; and one speaker endorsed English history for introductory work. Quite general agreement also seemed apparent that the lecture system should not be used for the introductory course if the finances of the institution permitted the splitting of classes into small groups under competent instructors. Some colleges reported the continuance of the lecture system, but always in conjunction with frequent conferences, recitations and quizzes. A number of the papers of this session will be printed in the MAGAZINE in the near future.

No such unity of subject appeared in the conference upon the teaching of history in secondary schools. Prof. C. E. Pray advocated the study of historical personalities; Mr. G. L. Swiggett urged more adequate training for business and the consular service; Prof. A. E. McKinley pointed out how largely the teaching of history in European schools had been affected by the war; Prof. S. B. Harding gave instances to show how German sympathizers in this country were trying to influence the text-book histories of the war. Prof. Harding, in the absence of Prof. W. S. Ferguson, reported upon the progress made by the Committee on History in Schools. He stated that the task of the committee is not to make a syllabus, but to select a series of topics, to point out what material may be omitted, what emphasized, and how the material shall be handled. The committee may also consider the place of history in the school curricu-

lum—that is, the possibility of giving social, functional value to it. The committee has not as yet decided to give any suggestions concerning the new two-year course in ancient, medieval and modern history, which has been adopted in many places, and recently was recommended by the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association.

Abundant evidence was shown from the program and from the action at the business meeting, that the association is taking a deeper interest in local and hereditary historical societies. Special conferences were devoted to hereditary historical societies, to local historical societies, and to the problems of the care and administration of archives. At the business meeting a report was adopted providing for a semi-independent organization of the Conference of Historical Societies. The conference, according to this report, should have its own officers and an independent income and treasury based upon the membership of the several societies joining the conference. The conference, with the assistance of the Newberry Library, of Chicago, will prepare a bibliography of historical societies for the years 1905-1915.

Many members attended the conference called to consider the advisability of publishing a journal devoted to the interests of European history. A strong sentiment in favor of the plan appeared. The chairman, Prof. George B. Adams, was authorized to appoint a committee to canvass the possibility of obtaining financial support for the journal. Later Prof. Adams appointed the following committee: Prof. D. C. Munro, chairman; Prof. James T. Shotwell, Prof. W. S. Ferguson, and Prof. E. R. Turner.

Another interesting conference was that upon the organization of a University Center for Higher Studies in Washington. A report, accompanied by a proposed constitution, was presented by a committee appointed at a preliminary conference held at Columbia University, May 13, 1916. The present plan is to lease a house or houses in Washington near the Library of Congress, and provide separate arrangements for men and women with private rooms and common living rooms. Ultimately it is hoped to provide for meals at the Center. Besides the values of community life and of mutual stimulus, it is hoped to appoint a permanent director who will aid inexperienced students in the effective use of original materials. If practicable, short courses by visiting professors will be arranged, and conferences provided with officials of the Government and other scholars residing in Washington. The expenses of the Center, estimated at \$7,000 for the first year, and \$4,000 for subsequent years, will be borne by contributing institutions who will control the Center, and by contributions from individuals.

The manifold activities of the association were well shown at the business meeting. Upon recommendation of the Council, the invitation of the University of Pennsylvania was accepted, and the next annual meeting set for Philadelphia; the recommendation of a registration fee of fifty cents for those attending the annual meeting was also adopted; the tenure of officers was voted to begin immediately after the election at the annual meeting, thus giving an opportunity for the new and old officers to meet and plan work for the year; the recommendations for the Conference of Historical Societies were accepted. The plan for a quarterly bulletin to be sent out in the intervals between the publication of the numbers of the "American Historical Review" was adopted, and a subscription was taken on the spot to finance the bulletin for the first year. The first number of the bulletin in each year, according to the plan, will be devoted to an account of the annual meeting, the lists of committees, etc.; the second number will contain the list of members or changes in membership; the third number will deal largely with personal news and notes of the

activities of the association; and the fourth issue will give the preliminary details of the program of the annual meeting.

Echoes of the reforming spirit of last year were noticed in the adoption, without debate, of the constitutional amendments proposed by the Committee of Nine; in the transfer of the ownership of the "American Historical Review" to the association; and in the immediate adoption of the report of the Committee on Finance concerning the methods of accounting in use by the association.

The following officers were chosen by ballot:

President, Worthington C. Ford; first vice-president, William Roscoe Thayer; second vice-president, Edward Channing; secretary, Waldo G. Leland; treasurer, Clarence W. Bowen; secretary of the Council, Evarts B. Greene; curator, A. Howard Clark; members of the Council, Eugene C. Barker, Guy Stanton Ford, Ulrich B. Phillips, Lucy M. Salmon, Samuel B. Harding, George M. Wrong, Henry E. Bourne, Charles Moore.

The Council announced the following committees for 1917:

HISTORICAL MANUSCRIPTS COMMISSION—Gaillard Hunt, chairman; M. M. Quaife, Justin H. Smith, Mrs. Amos G. Draper, D. R. Anderson, C. H. Lincoln.

COMMITTEE ON THE JUSTIN WINSOR PRIZE—Carl Russell Fish, chairman; Everett Kimball, E. S. Corwin, W. E. Dodd, Oswald G. Villard.

COMMITTEE ON THE HERBERT BAXTER ADAMS PRIZE—Laurence M. Larson, chairman; Sidney B. Fay, Louis J. Paetow, Ruth Putnam, R. H. Lord.

PUBLIC ARCHIVES COMMISSION—Victor Hugo Paltsits, chairman; Clarence W. Alvord, Solon J. Buck, John C. Fitzpatrick, George S. Godard, Thomas M. Owen, G. N. Fuller, Peter Guilday.

COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY—George M. Dutcher, chairman; William T. Laprade, Albert H. Lybyer, Wallace Notestein, William W. Rockwell, Augustus H. Shearer, William A. Slade, Bernard C. Steiner, H. E. Bolton.

COMMITTEE ON PUBLICATIONS—H. Barrett Learned, chairman; George M. Dutcher, Carl Russell Fish, Gaillard Hunt, J. Franklin Jameson, Laurence M. Larson, Victor Hugo Paltsits, W. G. Leland, E. B. Greene.

GENERAL COMMITTEE—William E. Lingelbach, chairman; Eloise Ellery, Irene T. Myers, Paul F. Peck, Royal B. Way, W. G. Leland, W. A. Morris, R. P. Brooks, R. H. George, P. J. Healy, C. R. Lingley, Eleanor Lord, J. M. McConnell, A. E. McKinley, F. E. Melvin, R. C. Ballard-Thruston, E. M. Huhne.

COMMITTEE ON HISTORY IN SCHOOLS—Henry Johnson, chairman; Victoria A. Adams, Henry E. Bourne, Henry L. Cannon, Oliver M. Dickerson, Herbert D. Foster, Samuel B. Harding, Robert A. Maurer, Nathaniel W. Stephenson, Philip Chase, D. C. Knowlton, R. M. Tryon, W. L. Westerman.

CONFERENCE OF HISTORICAL SOCIETIES—A. H. Shearer, secretary.

ADVISORY BOARD OF THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE—Fred M. Fling, James Sullivan, re-elected for three years, from January 1, 1917.

EDITOR OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW—Carl Becker, to succeed himself for the term of six years, beginning January 1, 1917.

COMMITTEE ON LOCAL ARRANGEMENTS, THIRTY-THIRD ANNUAL MEETING—George W. Pepper, chairman; W. E. Lingelbach, vice-chairman; A. C. Howland, W. I. Hull, R. W. Kelsey, J. J. Van Nostrand, Jr., with power to add to their membership.

COMMITTEE ON PROGRAM OF THE THIRTY-THIRD ANNUAL MEETING—J. B. McMaster, chairman; H. V. Ames, vice-chairman; J. H. Breasted, W. L. Fleming, H. L. Gray, C. J. H. Hayes, A. E. McKinley, D. C. Munro.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE:

Alabama History Teachers' Association—Secretary, D. G. Chase, Birmingham.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

California History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Clifford E. Lowell, Berkeley.

History Teachers' Association of Cincinnati, O.—Secretary, J. W. Ayres, High School, Madisonville, O.

History Section of Colorado Teachers' Association; Western Division, chairman, Mrs. K. A. Morrison, Gunnison; Southern Division, chairman, Max Morton, Pueblo; Eastern Division, chairman, Archibald Taylor, Longmont.

History Teachers' Association of Florida—President, Miss Caroline M. Brevard, Woman's College, Tallahassee; secretary, Miss E. M. Williams, Jacksonville.

Indiana History Teachers' Association—President, Beverly W. Bond, Jr., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; secretary, D. H. Eilsenberry, Muncie, Ind.

Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers—President, Prof. G. B. Benjamin, State University of Iowa; secretary, Miss M. A. Hutchinson, West Des Moines High School.

Jasper County, Mo., History Association—Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Peiffer, Carthage, Mo.

Kleio Club of University of Missouri.

Association of History Teachers of Middle States and Maryland—President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; secretary, Prof. L. R. Schuyler, City College, New York City.

Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Teachers' Section—Chairman, A. O. Thomas, Lincoln, Neb.; secretary, Howard C. Hill, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Missouri Association of Teachers of History and Government—Secretary, Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia, Mo.

Nebraska History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

New England History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Margaret McGill, Classical High School, Newtonville, Mass.; secretary, Mr. Horace Kidger, 82 Madison Avenue, Newtonville, Mass.

New York City Conference—Chairman, Fred H. Paine, East District High School, Brooklyn; secretary-treasurer, Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.

New York State History Teachers' Association—President, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; secretary, R. Sherman Stowell, West High School, Rochester, N. Y.

History Teachers' Section of Association of High School Teachers of North Carolina—Chairman, Miss Catherine Albertson, Elizabeth City, N. C.

History, Civics and Social Science Section of North Dakota Educational Association—President, H. C. Fish, State Normal School, Minot; secretary, Miss Hazel Nielson, High School, Fargo.

Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government—Secretary, Prof. L. T. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

Ohio History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus; secretary, W. C. Harris, Ohio State University.

History Club of Ohio State University—Chairman, Florence E. Heyde, Columbus, O.

Political Science Club of students who have majored in history at Ohio State University.

Pacific Coast Branch of American Historical Association—Secretary, Prof. W. A. Morris, Berkeley, Cal.

Rhode Island History Teachers' Association—Secretary, A. Howard Williamson, Technical High School, Providence, R. I.

Oklahoma History Teachers' Association—President, Prof. R. G. Sears, State Normal School, Ada; secretary, Miss Jeanette Gordon, High School, Oklahoma City.

South Dakota History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls, S. D.

Tennessee History Teachers' Association—Secretary-treasurer, Max Souby, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

Texas History Teachers' Section of the State Teachers' Association—President, Frederic Duncalf, Austin, Texas; secretary, L. F. McKay, Temple, Texas.

Twin City History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Medora Jordan, The Leamington, Minneapolis; secretary, Miss L. M. Ickler, 648 Delaware Avenue, St. Paul, Minn.

Virginia History Teachers' Section of Virginia State Teachers' Association—President, Prof. J. M. Lear, Farmville; secretary, Miss Zadie H. Smith, High School, Portsmouth, Va.

Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkesburg, Pa.

West Virginia History Teachers' Association—President, Charles E. Hedrick, Glenville; secretary, Dora Newman, of Fairmont.

Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, A. H. Sanford, La Crosse Normal School.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Elbert Francis Baldwin's article on "Francis Joseph's Long Reign" and T. Lothrop Stoddard's on "The New Emperor's Problems" in the January "Review of Reviews" are interesting and to the point. The former is a splendid resumé of the reign of the Emperor, emphasizing his strong hold on the affections of his people and the blunders of his foreign policy; the latter calls attention to the fact that the issue of the present war is literally one of life or death for Austria. However, the personality of the new Emperor is such that the future of Austria is not without hope.

"My Trip to the Front," by Mrs. W. K. Vanderbilt, in the January "Harper's," is an account of the author's visit last August to the lines in company with the Inquisitor General of the Field Service of the American Ambulances. The article is one of the most valuable that have yet appeared, as it gives a description, not only of Verdun, but of the actual fighting.

Harrison Rhodes' delightfully breezy article on "Washington the Cosmopolitan," in the same magazine, is full of interesting anecdotes of the National Capital.

Elmer Roberts' "America and Europe—Now and After the War," in the January "Scribner's," emphasizes the anxiety both belligerents and neutrals feel for the good opinion of the other. He also suggests that the fighting nations will not be as ruined economically as Americans seem to think, as their sources of effort have not remained inactive during the war.

"With Smuts in German East," by Cyril Campbell (January "Atlantic"), is a continuation of the author's account of the initial operations in the African campaign, which appeared in the August "Atlantic." It is a detailed and quite valuable narrative of the work of the great Afrikaner, the third member of the great Triumvirate which foresaw and strove for the foundation and construction of another great white nation.

Professor Albert Bushnell Hart's "See America First," in the "Outlook" for December 27, is admirably illustrated with views of the western mountains.

The editorial comments in the "New Republic" for December 20 on President Wilson's note to the belligerent Powers regarding terms of peace, are well worth one's reading as an exposition of our national policy.

Rear Admiral Bradley A. Fisher, generally recognized as the greatest naval authority on this side of the Atlantic, writes on "The Next Five Years of the Navy" in the "World's Work" for January. While criticizing the national laxness regarding an adequate navy, he also presents an admirable plan for recreation and reorganization of our naval power. The article is forcefully written and splendidly illustrated.

Professor Edwin J. Clapp, of New York University, has an excellent article on "The Adamson Law" in the "Yale Review" for January. He traces the beginnings of this law from January, 1913, when the eight-hour basic day was first demanded. The article is quite impartial in its presentation of disputed points and carefully analytic of the whole situation.

The Earl of Cromer's "Reflections on the War" and John Barrett's "Mexico" in the same magazine are also well worth reading.

The last issue of the "American Political Science Review" publishes an article on "The British Empire and Closer Union," by Professor Theodore H. Boggs, of the University of British Columbia, in which he discusses the general idea of the abolition of free trade.

The origin, terms and probable results of the Federal Rural Credits Bill are ably discussed by George E. Putnam in the "American Economic Review" for December.

The January "North American" contains President Lowell's exposition of The League to Enforce Peace and Sydney Brooks' "Meaning of the Lloyd-George Ministry," which he calls the triumph of democracy. He says of the new Premier that he is the right man in the right place, who will bring about a screwing up of infinitely varied machinery, a deepening of spiritual elements to form the fighting strength of a modern nation.

"The Danger in India" is discussed in the December issue of the "Nineteenth Century" by the Right Honorable Lord Sydenham, of Coombe. His intimate knowledge of affairs in India leads to the statement that affairs there are being very much neglected, and only the ardent loyalty of the Indians saves England from a revolution. The situation there is more dangerous because of intensely complex social structures, the medley of races, creeds, languages and customs contained in this geographical entity. As yet India feels the strain of war very slightly, but the experience that her soldiers are gaining in foreign lands will make an uneradicable impression on the national consciousness.

H. N. Brailsford's "The Civil Strife in Greece" ("Contemporary Review" for December) is a discussion of the work of Venizelos and of his party in establishing and carrying on a revolutionary government under the guns of a European fleet.

Reports from The Historical Field

The World Peace Foundation (Boston) has published a pamphlet entitled, "The Conciliation Plan of the League to Enforce Peace," in which the attempt is made to show that the conciliation plan is in accord with the terms of American arbitration treaties.

The Florida History Teachers' Association held its annual meeting at Arcadia, December 29. The following officers were chosen: President, Miss Caroline M. Brevard, Tallahassee, Fla.; vice-president, Prof. David M. Cook, Tampa, Fla.; secretary, Miss Essie May Williams, Jacksonville, Fla.; Executive Committee, Prof. Arthur Williams, Tallahassee, Fla.; Prof. D. B. Shaver, Wauchula, Fla.; Prof. Albert Isaac, Coconut Grove, Fla.; Mrs. W. P. Coffey, Gainesville, Fla.

The Library of Congress has issued its List of American Doctoral Dissertations Printed in 1916, prepared by Mr. A. M. Stephens. The volume also contains supplementary lists of thesis for 1912, 1913 and 1914. The volume also shows an alphabetical list of authors arranged under the names of the universities conferring degrees. Twenty-one titles are listed under the heading of History and Topography; thirty-five are listed under Social Sciences; and twelve under Political Science. It is to be noted, however, that a number of those included in social and political science are historical in treatment.

The National Council of the Boy Scouts of America has completed the preparation of an educational department for the Boy Scout Movement, at the head of which has been placed Mr. Lorne W. Barkley. There is also to be an Educational Advisory Committee, composed of Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, Dean James E. Russell and Prof. Norman E. Richardson. The aim of the educational department will be to co-operate with school teachers and school administrators in bringing about a proper understanding of the educational value of the Boy Scout Movement.

The History and Civics Section of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association met in connection with the annual session of the Association at the Technical High School, Harrisburg, December 27. The chairman was A. B. Moyer, of the Downingtown High School, and the secretary, L. J. Reese, of the Lansford High School. The following program was provided: Community Civics, "Its Scope and Method," by Samuel H. Ziegler, West Philadelphia High School for Boys; discussion. "Industrial History, Its Place and Relative Value in Secondary Schools," Prof. Hiram H. Shank, Lebanon Valley College; discussion. "Shall We Change from the Four Unit Plan to the Three Unit Basis," by A. D. Thomas, Hazleton; discussion. Informal Round Table Conference, topics: 1. Problem Method vs. Narrative Textbook Method; 2. Conference Plan vs. Combined Study-Recitation Plan; 3. Should Source Material and Collateral Readings be Standardized for Secondary Schools? 4. Do You Favor the Continuity Plan in Teaching History Instead of the Elective System? 5. Would a Delimitation of the History Course Benefit Small High Schools? 6. Do you give definite instructions for preparing note-books? 7. How may history teaching be improved?

The well-known English historian, Dr. H. A. L. Fisher, has accepted the office of president of the Board of Educa-

tion in the new Lloyd-George Ministry. Dr. Fisher has had wide experience in educational affairs, and has shown deep sympathy in such movements as the University Tutorial Classes and the Workers' Educational Association.

Dr. William H. Mace, for twenty-five years connected with the Department of History of Syracuse University, has recently been appointed editor of educational text for Rand, McNally & Co., of Chicago and New York. Dr. Mace is the author of a number of history text-books published by this firm.

"Sargent's Handbook of American Private Schools for 1916" has been recently published by Mr. Porter E. Sargent of Boston. It contains nearly 100 pages, giving a general description of private school education in the United States with a select bibliography. This is followed by about 300 pages of lists and descriptions of private schools throughout the country arranged both according to geographical distribution and the grade of the courses of study. The book also includes lists of student periodicals, educational associations and magazines, teachers' agencies, school supply dealers and other information of value to educators and those looking for guidance in educational matters.

Volume 1 of the "Final Report of the Ohio Co-operative Topographic Survey of the Ohio-Michigan Boundary" has appeared from the press. The volume contains the report of the commissioners; the report of the engineer; and a brief sketch of the history of the boundary dispute between Ohio and Michigan.

"Sectionalism, Representation, and the Electoral Question in Ante-Bellum South Carolina" is the title of a paper which appears in the Washington University Studies for October, 1916 (Volume 4, Part 2, No. 1, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.). The study begins with about 1829 and continues down to 1858. It is accompanied with a number of maps showing the popular vote and legislative vote on important questions in the State's history.

The "Mississippi Valley Historical Review" for December, 1916, contains the following papers: "Effects of Secession Upon the Commerce of the Mississippi Valley," by E. L. Colter; "Alabama and the Federal Government," by T. H. Jack; "Sir John Johnson, Loyalist," by M. G. Walker, and "Historical Activities in the Trans-Mississippi and Northwest," by D. E. Clark.

The New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction has recently issued a syllabus for high schools entitled, "The Teaching of Social Studies, Including History." The monograph was prepared by Mr. Albert B. Meredith, Assistant Commissioner of Education, and by the following committee of New Jersey teachers of history: Mr. Arthur D. Arnold, chairman, Principal of High School, Passaic; Miss Sarah A. Dynes, State Normal School, Trenton; Mr. Samuel B. Howe, South Side High School, Newark; Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, Central Manual Training and Commercial High School, Newark; Dr. Byron C. Matthews, Barringer High School, Newark, and Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair. Four courses of study are outlined in detail—first, Early European History to 1700, including English history and colonial American history; second, Modern European History Since 1700, including contemporary civilizations; third, United States History Since 1760 and Civic Theory and Practice; fourth, Economics. The department does not prescribe any fixed arrangement of these courses. Several plans are proposed.

PLAN I.

- Grade 9—Community Civics, including a study of vocations, 5 periods.
 Grade 10—Early European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 11—Modern European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 12—Two courses:
 a. United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.
 b. Economics, 5 periods.

PLAN II.

- Grade 8—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 2 or 3 periods.
 Grade 9—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 5 periods.
 Grade 10—Early European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 11—Modern European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 12—Two courses:
 a. United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.
 b. Economics.

PLAN III.

- Grade 8—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 5 periods.
 Grade 9—Early European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 10—Modern European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 11—United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.
 Grade 12—Economics, 5 periods.

PLAN IV.

- Grade 8—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 5 periods.
 Grade 9—Early European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 10—
 Grade 11—Modern European History, 5 periods.
 Grade 12—United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.

A detailed analysis of each one of the four courses is given. In addition there are suggestions for teachers, a bibliography of the teaching of history, and a suggested one hundred dollar library to cover the entire four courses. References to dealers and publishers of pictures, lantern slides, wall and desk maps and atlases are also included.

J. F. Byrne's article in the January "Century" on "The Irish Grievance" presents the case of the anti-English party by outlining the century and more of strenuous effort by Irish Nationalists to avenge the measures of redress by constitutional means, and concludes that this is obviously impossible as long as the veto power remains in the hands of the House of Lords.

THE CANDID PROFESSOR SPEAKS.

"Gentlemen, this course in English history which I am going to give you will bore me as much as it will bore you. I wrote these notes over ten years ago, so that if any of you have notes taken by former students you can read even the jokes and *jeux d'esprit* before you come into class. I don't expect to know any of you personally. My secretary corrects the final examination papers. Nevertheless, I shall be willing to recommend you as preparatory school teachers at the close of the year. I do this to accommodate a bureau of employment conducted by the college. The recommendations are read by those in authority, and I want them to sound well, so that I will hold my job. I shall now begin to read the notes, and I feel sure that you all will absently take down erroneous notes in your usual illegible handwriting."—*Life*.

HAKLUYT EXHIBIT.

At the New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street, an interesting exhibition commemorative of the death of Richard Hakluyt, the father of British geography, has been placed on view. This exhibition fills eleven show cases in which are shown many exceedingly rare publications. They include the earliest collections of voyages that were printed in any language, prior to Hakluyt's own works, and cover the period from 1504 to 1555. Of Richard Hakluyt's own works the Library shows every original publication. His "Divers Voyages," 1582, one of eight known copies, is also the first book in the English language which relates to the territory which became the United States of America, and in which Hakluyt began his campaign for British maritime exploration. A still rarer book is his translation of Laudonnière's "Notable Historie of Florida," 1597; also "Virginia richly valued," which gives a description of the country south of Virginia, and is believed to have been published under the patronage of the Virginia Company. It is a translation made from a Portuguese "Relation," 1557, of which the Library owns one of the two known copies, the other being in the British Museum. This Portuguese work is also exhibited. Other works translated or edited by Hakluyt shown are those of Peter Martyr and Galvano. But the chief memorial of Hakluyt in this exhibition, or indeed in any exhibition that could be made respecting him or his work, is the only known manuscript of his treatise on "Western Discovery," written in 1584, which was never printed in his day, seeing the light only in 1877, when it was brought out by the Maine Historical Society. In this manuscript he exhibited systematically the political, commercial and religious advantages to be derived by England from attempted colonization of America, particularly what is now the United States. He presented a copy to Queen Elizabeth before September, 1584, and made a second copy, wholly in his hand, which he gave to Sir Francis Walsingham shortly before Easter, 1585. Both of these manuscripts were lost almost from the time when they were written, and the manuscript exhibited lay unnoticed for nearly three hundred years until the publication already mentioned.

Hakluyt suggested or lent his aid to other contemporaries in bringing out translations of geographical works of importance, such as "Mendoza's China," 1588; Leo Africanus's "A Geographical History of Africa," 1600, and Lescarbot's "New France," or Canada, 1609. It was in 1589 that the first large volume of Hakluyt's "Principall Navigations Voiages and Discoveries," came from the press. Of this the New York Public Library has three copies. It has also five sets of the great three volume edition, showing virtually all known variations, 1598-1600, and one of these sets is particularly interesting to Americans because two of the title pages contain the autograph of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, the explorer of Maine. The original work of Samuel Purchas, 1625-1626, the continuation of Hakluyt and the various more modern edited editions and extracts of Hakluyt and Purchas are also in this exhibition, whilst about six cases contain a complete set of the publications of the Hakluyt Society named after him, which were issued from 1847 to 1915. The late Sir Clements Markham, president of the Royal Geographical Society and of the Hakluyt Society, pointed out that Hakluyt and Sir Walter Raleigh were virtually the founders of those colonies which eventually formed the United States, and that therefore Americans who revere the name of Raleigh should give an equal place to that of Hakluyt. It is with this idea in mind that the Public Library has taken the occasion of Hakluyt's tercentenary to bring before the American people the interest that his work has for them, and how closely it concerns their antecedents.

NATIONAL ELECTION REPRODUCED IN SCHOOL.

In many schools in the country the boys and girls on election day, November 7, reproduced in school the principal methods of balloting pursued in their community. An account of such a school election is given below, describing what was done in the two junior high schools of Kenosha, Wis., a description of which appears in the "Educational News Bulletin" (Wisconsin) for December 1, 1916.

"A broad swath was recently cut in the important field of training for citizenship by the holding of an election in the two Kenosha Junior High Schools. These two schools of about 250 boys and girls each are housed according to a sort of modified Gary plan in one building known as the Frank School.

"The plans for the election experiment were made by the teachers in civics of these two schools, Matilda Hansen and Winifred Farley. Here is their report.

"About two weeks before the election Russell H. Jones, the county clerk, visited the school, and described the management of an election and the process of voting. He also furnished regular polling lists and tally sheets for tabulating returns. A room in the basement of the Frank School is used as a polling place for the fourth ward of Kenosha, and this enabled the children to carry out the voting in the regular way by using the room the day before election. The whole program was carried out even to the swearing in of one of the election clerks.

"The campaign situation had been studied in connection with current events in the civics classes in anticipation of the election. An outline of the necessary material was made, and the following subjects were fully discussed in the civics classes.

"1. The legal qualifications of candidates for the several offices.

"2. Personal qualities necessary to the ideal man for each office.

"3. The method of procedure in the nomination of candidates: a. for the presidential ballot; b. for the state, legislative, congressional, and county ballot.

"4. Manner of registration and the necessity of registering.

"5. Methods of voting—straight ticket—'scratch' ticket.

"6. Method of counting votes: a. By the election board; b. By the county board of canvassers; c. By the state board.

"The plan of conducting the election was as follows:

"1. The school represented the city.

"2. Each section of the Junior High School was a ward, viz.: There were the Frank school ward and the Lincoln school ward of the Junior High School City.

"3. The count was made in each ward independent of the other.

"4. The results were totaled as for an entire city. Each ward had its own officials for election.

"We set aside Wednesday, November 1, as registration day. On this occasion, the board of registry, previously selected from the class, took full charge and performed the required duties.

"The following Monday, November 6, was named as election day. As we used the polling place of the fourth ward

of Kenosha, located in the basement of our school house, it was not possible to conduct our election on Tuesday, the regular election day. On this day, our chosen City Clerk swore in the inspector of election with all solemnity. The supplies were taken to the voting place, the ballots marked with the initials of the ballot clerks, every voter was questioned whether he had registered and no ballot was given to a voter not registered unless that voter could produce an affidavit, substantiated by two other voters from his own section. It was most strictly managed by the class members.

"After the votes had all been cast, the election board gathered to count the ballots. With the air of experienced men and women, these boys and girls of the board went through the counting, sorting into different groups the 'straights' and the 'scratches,' then further dividing the 'straights' into their respective piles.

"The tally was made, blanks furnished for general election returns filled out, and these were filed with the County Clerk of our school.

"Too much credit cannot be given to the teachers who directed this impressive lesson on citizenship in its broadest and most practical aspect—that of voting for national, state and municipal officers."

A HISTORY GAME.

I find the following game very interesting and profitable when used in connection with history.

One student is sent from the room and while out the teacher, or one of the pupils, decides what historical character he or she is to be. When the student re-enters the room the others ask him questions as though he were the historical character selected; and from the questions asked the pupil guesses who he is.

For example, the teacher sends John Smith from the room and they decide to make him Cyrus the Great. The pupils prepare their questions and give them as called on by the teacher. John is admitted and questions are asked. The following are a few good questions if "Cyrus the Great" is the character chosen: 1. "Were you a vassal to the Median King?" 2. "Were you really so great as history tells us you were?" 3. "Why did you wish to capture the Median King?" 4. "Did you expand the Persian Empire very much during your reign?" etc.

The pupil guesses who he is as soon as possible and the one who "gives it away" is sent out the next time. In case the pupil cannot guess who he is and "gives up," he is sent from the room again and another name is chosen.

This game is very interesting and at the same time is a splendid incentive to study, for the pupils must be thoroughly familiar with the character in order to ask good questions, and in order to guess who they are.

In my ancient history class we play the game for at least half of the period every Friday, provided the average daily grade for the week is good. And the pupils usually bring up good lessons, for it is a dreadful punishment if they are not permitted to play.

This game is just as effective when used in English or American history as it is when used in ancient.

Original by

HENRIETTA AYRE.

Church Hill, Tenn.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

AURNER, CLARENCE RAY. *History of Education in Iowa.* Volumes I, II, III, IV. Iowa City, Iowa: State Historical Society, 1916. Pp. xiv, 436; lx, 469; xii, 464; xi, 471. \$2.00 each.

It is gratifying to note that a State Historical Society has considered this aspect of State history worthy of inclusion in its archives. The State Historical Society of Iowa is to be congratulated upon its successful venture into a field of history which has been lamentably neglected by similar institutions. Its commission to Doctor Aurner has been creditably discharged; he has contributed a valuable chapter to the history of Iowa.

In reviewing a work so comprehensive in scope, it will serve no commendable purpose to magnify relatively insignificant errors. The author has examined a huge amount of source material, and has treated it well. Undoubtedly opinions will differ on the matter of relative values and proportion, but it will be generally admitted that the work is authentic, and that, within its limitations, it is fairly complete.

ROBERT FRANCIS SEYBOLT.

The University of Wisconsin.

WHITE, J. WILLIAM. *A Text-book of the War for Americans.* Fourth edition of "A Primer of the War for Americans." Revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1915. Pp. 551. \$1.00.

This volume is a compilation of extracts from documents, essays, editorials, and books relating to the war.

The author has adopted the Socratic method of presentation, each chapter having for its title a question, the answer to which lies in the chapter itself. The scope of the work is revealed by some of the questions so considered: "What evidence exists as to the fundamental cause of this war?" "What is the evidence as to the events immediately leading up to the war in their relation to the culpability of Germany?" "Has there been reason to modify or to mitigate the almost universal condemnation of Germany's treatment of Belgium felt and expressed at the outset in this country?" "What are the principles represented by the opposing forces in this war?" "What are the extent and the aims of the organized German propaganda in America?" "How much reliance is to be placed upon statements emanating from Germany at this time?" "What are the duties of America at this time?" "What can America do to bring about peace?"

The author believes the war was made in Germany; its fundamental cause was "the determination of Germany to attain 'world power'" (page 17); this determination has been expressed for over forty years in the writings and teachings of prominent and representative Germans; the struggle was precipitated by an ambitious autocratic military caste headed by a neurotic—"in all probability a neuropsychopathic" (page 52)—over-lord, "with medieval views of his relation to his country and the world, and supported by a subservient corps of 'learned men,' the majority of whom are paid servants of the State" (page 499). Germany's conduct of the war has been the logical outcome of her philosophy that "necessity knows no law;" for "she has disregarded, . . . or broken . . . many international laws and customs. . . . In each instance the infraction has been accompanied or followed by quibbling, . . . or untruthful attempts to explain, . . . or vindicate the action. The evidence as to atrocities committed by Ger-

mans . . . is formidable, and is constantly increasing" (page 500). America should proclaim "our absolute and unreserved belief in the right and justice of the cause of the Allies, and our determination, should the worst come to them, that they shall have our material support to our last dollar, our last bushel of corn, our last drop of blood" (page 503).

The above summary renders unnecessary any comment on the character of the work. Military events receive no attention. The volume is supplied with two illustrations, an unscholarly bibliography, and an incomplete general index. It also contains a useful "Index of Names," giving a brief identification of each person listed. The placing of footnotes at the end of the volume is a nuisance. On page 28 the author uses "Arabia" for "Bessarabia." While the work cannot be regarded as an impartial or scholarly treatment of the Great War, readers will find it entertaining and useful as a collection of material upholding the causes of the Allies.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

MACE, WILLIAM H. *Washington: A Virginia Cavalier. Little Lives of Great Men.* Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1916. Pp. 180. 35 cents.

The story of Washington's life is told in a straightforward, interesting way that should hold the attention of grammar school pupils. The hero's boyhood is particularly well described. In the treatment of his adult life the account follows closely, with a few exceptions, the events in which Washington directly participated. The little book, which is only four by six inches in size, has no maps, but the illustrations are abundant; some of these are reproductions of paintings, some are fanciful pictures, and there are many sketches drawn from objects at Mount Vernon and elsewhere, associated with the Washington family.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

MACDONALD, J. R. MORETON. *A History of France.* In three volumes. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915. Pp. 366, 399, 551. \$6.00.

For many years no general history of France of medium size has been written in English. Since Kitchin wrote, extensive research has gone on, and so a new work embodying its results is welcome.

Mr. Macdonald has devoted his first volume to the medieval period, the second to the years 1515-1789, and the third to modern France up to 1871. It is a pity that he did not bring it up to date. His literary style is good and the book is readable. Perhaps it is somewhat open to criticism for emphasis on political, military and diplomatic history; but that does not mean that the economic side has been wholly neglected. The book seems to be based on sound scholarship, and should prove to be useful to the general reader. For high school pupils the language is perhaps a little difficult, but it may be helpful to the advanced students.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

MCCARTHY, CHARLES; SWAN, FLORA, AND MCMULLIN, JENNIE. *Elementary Civics.* New York: Thompson, Brown & Co., 1916. Pp. viii, 232. 75 cents.

In the nature of its contents, and especially in the apportionment of space to topics, this book follows no model known to the reviewer. Of its 224 pages preceding the index, 50 pages are given to appendices, most of which are quite usable. The amount of space devoted to the ques-

tions that follow each chapter is large, one-ninth that of the reading matter proper. The subject of city government is given two-sevenths of the entire space. A chapter on "Efficiency" comprises one-sixth of the book preceding the appendices, and treats of industrial, as well as political efficiency.

The book represents in a very marked way the reaction against the old style of civics text which was devoted mainly to descriptions of governmental organization and constitutional functions. The questions, and sometimes the text, suggest that facts should be gathered about forms and organization. For example, the text says (page 98) that Congress is so well described in the Constitution that "you can study it out for yourselves." Criticisms of our government and comparisons with forms and activities of government elsewhere are frequent—an excellent feature of the work.

Probably on account of its co-operative authorship, the subject matter varies considerably in its adaptability to pupils of the eighth grade. In places the style is simple, clear, and attractive; in other passages unwarranted assumptions are made, severe condensation renders the subject matter difficult, and complex topics are introduced.

Surely, as the preface says, "the chapters are for reading and discussion. A teacher of strength and originality, by the aid of the stimulating text and questions of this book, may have a class of boys and girls who are learning facts instead of words, who are thinking as they learn, who are in touch with actualities, and who are getting real training for citizenship.

S.

STEPHENS, KATE. *The Mastering of Mexico*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xi, 335. \$1.50.

Channing, in Volume I of his "History of the United States," page 60, footnote, says: "The student of United States history will gain a sufficient knowledge of the conquest of Mexico from Prescott's brilliant work, or better from Bernal Diaz del Castillo's 'Historia Verdadera,' of which there are several translations." The task Miss Stephens set for herself was the boiling down of the three volumes of Maudslay's translation of this narrative of Diaz (Hakluyt Society Publications), and combining the product with excerpts from Lockhart's "Memoirs" of this conquistador. This companion of Cortes and participant in one of the greatest expeditions known to mankind, wrote with exceptional vividness and power, and these elements of strength have been carried over in good degree into this condensation of the chronicle. For scholars the fuller form of the narrative must continue to be essential, but in the briefer there is good source material for the high school pupil and stirring narrative for the general reader interested either in tales of adventure or in the earliest history of suffering Mexico.

DE SOUZA, CHARLES, AND MACFALL, HALDANE. *Germany in Defeat. A Strategic History of the War. First Phase*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., Ltd. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 207. \$2.00, net.

DE SOUZA, CHARLES. *Germany in Defeat. A Strategic History of the War*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., Ltd. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 232. \$2.00, net.

These two books have apparently been written for two reasons: First, to explain the strategy of the war so the civilian can understand what happened, and why, and not be misled by the reports and comments of badly informed journalists; and second, to make the public "realize that Germany was defeated at the Marne—that she has been a

defeated people ever since—and that at hand is, and must resolutely be carried out, her complete crushing as a fighting force." The authors believe that "the arrogant publication of high Prussian officers of scores of books" laying bare their elaborate plans for the conquest of France was intended to blind public opinion and lead the French to do what the German leaders wished and expected. The authors are sure that Joffre gained by the first offensive in Upper Alsace, though lesser officers made mistakes, that he wisely avoided a hasty advance into Belgium which would have made a defeat likely, and that he kept the initiative all along and won the campaign by superior brains. They give high praise also to generals like Sarraill and Foch, who did so much to help.

The second volume covers the period from the Battle of the Marne to the close of the first battle of Ypres in October, 1914. Both volumes are very well written. They give clear explanations of the main movements, and make the motives plain to the civilian readers. They give a fine analysis of the moves in the great chess game of war. Naturally many will disagree with the views expressed by the authors. The complete truth will not be beyond dispute for many years. It is obvious of course that the author's point of view is decidedly French and English.

The books are provided with very many excellent maps and plans to illustrate the various movements. The mature high school boys will be much interested in these books. Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

HOWARD, DANIEL. *American History, Government and Institutions*. Boston: The Palmer Co., 1908 and 1914. Pp. 233. \$1.00.

Under the above title and in the compass of 233 pages the author discusses a little of almost everything concerning America, including history, geography, government, biography, citizenship and American life. The book was written primarily for classes of foreigners in public evening schools. It has no value for anything else, and should have been much better even for that. The part dealing with American history is particularly objectionable. Some 90 pages in all are given to American history, of which 51 pages are given to the colonial period, and 10 of these 51 pages are given to the military events of the Revolutionary War. Only 12 pages are given to the period from 1783 to 1860, followed by 14 pages given to the Civil War—chiefly military history of the old type. Only two pages are given to the period 1865 to 1898, and three pages to the Spanish-American War. The author showed little care for proper perspective. Likewise, it has evidently been some time since the author has studied his history. The following quotation will indicate the type of untruthful history—if there can be any such thing—which the author would have our new immigrants learn. Speaking of the effects of the French and Indian War, he says: "The Americans had to pay twice as much money as the English for the expenses of the army, but when the war was over the English tried to make the Americans pay them larger taxes so that they could get back what they had spent in all the wars that had been fought in America."

Some other parts of the book contain some valuable information which might be used as reading lessons for foreigners in the evening schools, and made the basis of conversation in English. The author has attempted too much, however, in a book of this size, with the inevitable result that none is entirely satisfactory. The book would be more satisfactory if the part on American history had been left out entirely.

WILSON P. SHORTBRIDGE.

North High School, Minneapolis.

BREASTED, JAMES H. *Ancient Times: A History of the Early World*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1916. Pp. 742. \$1.60.

Professor Breasted's book is divided into five parts, as follows: "The Earliest Europeans," 34 pages; "The Orient," 186 pages; "The Greeks," 224 pages; "The Mediterranean World in the Hellenistic Age and the Roman Empire," 156 pages, and "The Roman Empire," 116 pages. The outstanding feature of this book's arrangement is the emphasis placed on pre-Greek civilization. The arrangement will provoke some grumbling, no doubt, but the author justifies it because so much Oriental history has been recovered in the past generation that it is impossible to explain the rise of civilization in the usual limit of pages. Therefore "A text-book which devotes a brief fifty- or sixty-page introduction to the Orient, and begins 'real history' with the Greeks is not proportioned in accordance with modern knowledge of the ancient world" (p. 5).

In each part, only "a sufficient framework of political organization and historical events has been laid down; but the bulk of the space has been devoted to the life of man in all its manifestations—society, industry, commerce, religion, art, literature (p. iii). This method of treatment is highly commendable, and, with its charming and entertaining style, will captivate the attention of high school boys and girls.

This book has other points which recommend it as a text-book. It is profusely illustrated, and it is generously supplied with maps; the chapters are broken into sections, and the magazines contain topic headings; each chapter is followed with a list of questions designed to provoke thought, and the last chapter is followed with a well organized bibliography, in which the books referred to usually have estimates placed on them. On the whole, the book represents the last word in text-book construction.

HENRY NOBLE SHERWOOD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wisconsin.

BECA, COLONEL. *A Study of the Development of Infantry Tactics*. Translated by Major A. F. Custance. With a Preface by Brigadier-General G. W. Hackett Pain. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1911. Pp. xvi, 131. 75 cents.

Only a military historian can properly evaluate this brochure on the development of infantry tactics. But though published just before the war, the amateur student of military history can see that in some respects it is already out-of-date. The author, a colonel in the Portuguese army, perceived but dimly the astonishing changes which would be brought about by the aeroplane. While realizing the tendency towards more extensive battle frontages, he also apparently deemed the present extensive battle lines and intricate trench systems impossible, "for thin lines of great extent would rarely be able to bring about decisive results" (p. 102).

The one point emphasized repeatedly is the all-importance of the human factor in modern as in ancient warfare. "Tactical science . . . possesses two indispensable bases, the science of arms, and the science of human nature. . . . The result of sound reasoning is this, that the study of man, of the psychical factors of battle—strength of will, courage and cowardice, discipline, coolness and excitability . . . should in the intellectual education of officers take precedence of the study of arms and of the merely material factors" (p. 33).

To students of history, the sketch of infantry tactics from ancient to modern times (chapter II) will possess high interest. Fighting systematically on the defensive, Colonel

Beca maintains, was the chief tactical cause of the defeat of the Austrians by the French in 1859, of the French by the Prussians in 1870, and of the Russians by the Japanese in 1905. Will history report a similar failure by the Allies in the present struggle? Many will learn with surprise that Mohammedanism was "the re-establishment of the religion of Abraham" (p. 24). "Martel" contains but one "1" (p. 24). The defeat of the French when using the linear tactics of Frederick II and the victory of the Prussians by their employment of Napoleonic methods in the Franco-Prussian war form one of the ironies of history (p. 46).

Students interested in military matters—and what student is not nowadays?—will find this little volume worth reading. It contains a number of drawings illustrating the modern disposition of troops en route and in battle formation. It has no index.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

CORWIN, EDWARD S. *French Policy and the American Alliance of 1778*. Princeton: University Press, 1916. Pp. ix, 430. \$2.00.

The Franco-American alliance has been analyzed and interpreted from a variety of points of view. Students of the event agree that it was an important episode in the century-old conflict between France and England for world power; that it was a determining factor in the disruption of the British Empire and the attainment of American independence. They have, however, differed widely on the problems of motive which actuated France in giving substantial aid to the revolting English colonies. Each one has sought to make a single key to open the door to the mystery of motive. The alliance has been explained by the desire of France to recover a lost empire; to protect her over-seas possessions against English aggression; or to secure the advantages of commerce with a new nation. It is held that France succored America out of a spirit of revenge against her traditional and dominant rival; or that French liberalism heard and responded to the call of American freedom in distress.

Dr. Corwin presents the thesis that the focus of the French foreign office was adjusted to the continent of Europe, not America, as the first consideration. He seeks to prove that by linking herself to America, France was moved by an intense desire to restore her classical role of leadership in the European world. The power of France had been tarnished by the triumph of English arms in the Seven Years' War. The source of England's controlling position in world politics lay in her colonies; sever these from her and thereby undermine her economic and naval power as the instruments of her dominance. So ran the French argument. The enfeeblement of England in America as the stepping-stone to French prestige in Europe was the impelling motive in French diplomacy. The author does not set aside as negligible the various factors advanced by others to explain French motive in making the alliance. What he does is to show to what extent they are tenable as leading motives and what part they played in the efforts to reassert French control in Europe. And so questions of commerce, territory, sea-power and foreign relations all take their place in the scheme, not to rehabilitate the French empire in the new world, but to promote French influence in the old by shearing England's strength in colonies.

Dr. Corwin's study is not unique in the sense that it is based upon a wide examination of unpublished sources. The staple of source material is Doniol's great collection of documents from the archives of the French foreign office,

which Dr. Corwin has subjected to thorough examination and scholarly analysis. This has been supplemented by a careful use of memoirs, newspapers, writings of public men, Wharton, and the journals of Continental Congress. A critical bibliographical note is a worthy and instructive part of the volume. The study is not new because it assumes points of view and presents factors hitherto left out of account. What is distinctive, and which alone entitles it to a high place in the literature of the subject, is the author's conception and treatment of the whole matter. He recognizes the fact that historical treatment involves the adjusting and balancing of numerous factors and inter-relationships. Such was the Franco-American alliance; a sort of chess-problem difficulty demanding the power to comprehend and evaluate a good number of interacting forces. Herein lies the value of the work before us, that is, the analysis of all items, a careful apportionment of various forces and motives, and a nice synthesis of all in a general history of the alliance. Under his careful workmanship and broad view, the Franco-Spanish alliance, the attempts of France to adjust the antagonistic interests of Spain and the United States over western lands, the French influence upon Continental Congress, the final aloofness of France from America, and the separate negotiations of America for peace with England assume a fuller and deeper meaning in a period of episodes.

It is altogether a fine and serious piece of work.

W. T. ROOT.

University of Wisconsin.

YOUNG, ARTHUR NICHOLS. *The Single Tax Movement in the United States*. Princeton: University Press, 1916. Pp. x, 336. \$1.50.

The single tax doctrine is almost a religious tenet with many people, some would call it a superstition. Its advocates have in some cases become fanatics, and its opponents have fought it with the zeal of those who fight a thing which they fear may be right after all, but which they feel is against their interests or class creed. No one who is interested in the development of economic thought can afford to ignore the movement which, ignoring writings of the Physiocrats, may be called the evolution of the doctrines of Henry George.

The opponents of this doctrine insist that George's followers are dishonest since they would take from those who hold a particular kind of property their accumulations, and give these accumulations to those holding other sorts of property. On the other hand, the devotees of the doctrine claim that it will solve all the ills of man arising from economic causes, and therefore they at once, by making ridiculous claims, alienate the confidence of the intelligent student. The single tax is generally discussed with heat rather than with light; and those who argue it generally do so for the purpose of winning a debate rather than to discover the truth.

"In the present volume the writer has undertaken to give a complete historical account of the single tax movement in the United States, together with a discussion of the

single taxers, their program, the present status of the movement, and its influence upon economic thought and upon fiscal and social reform.

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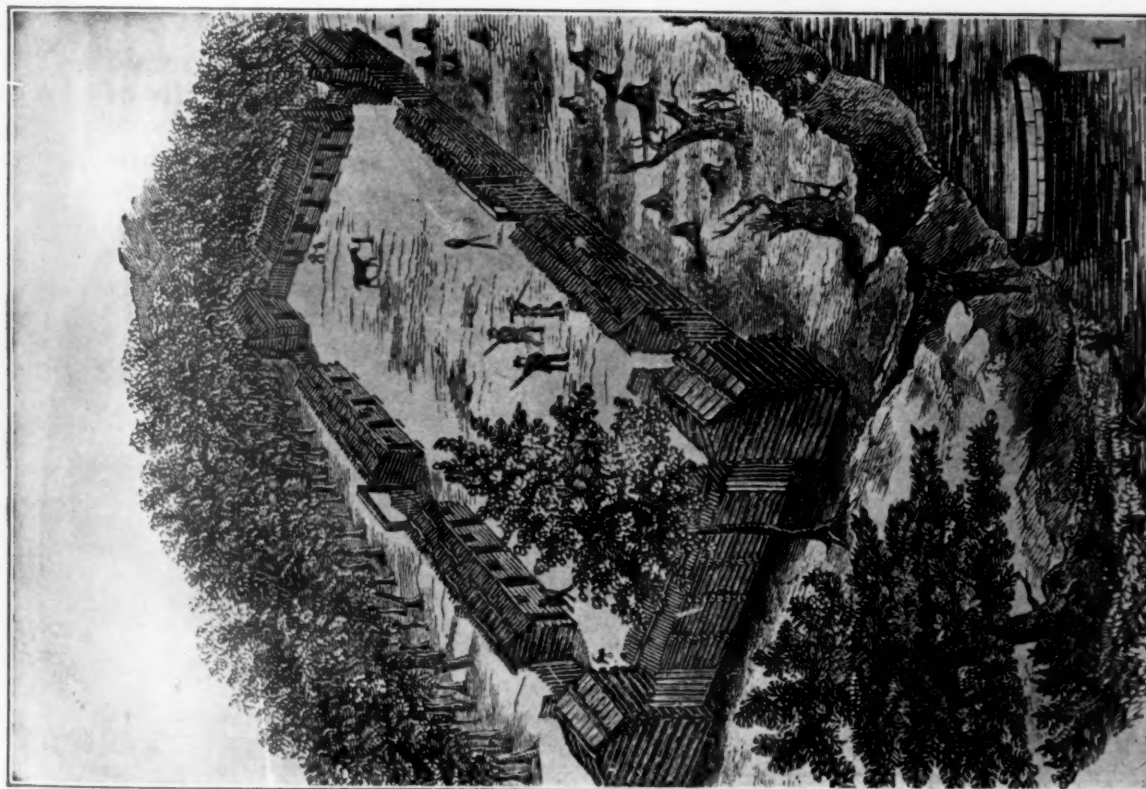
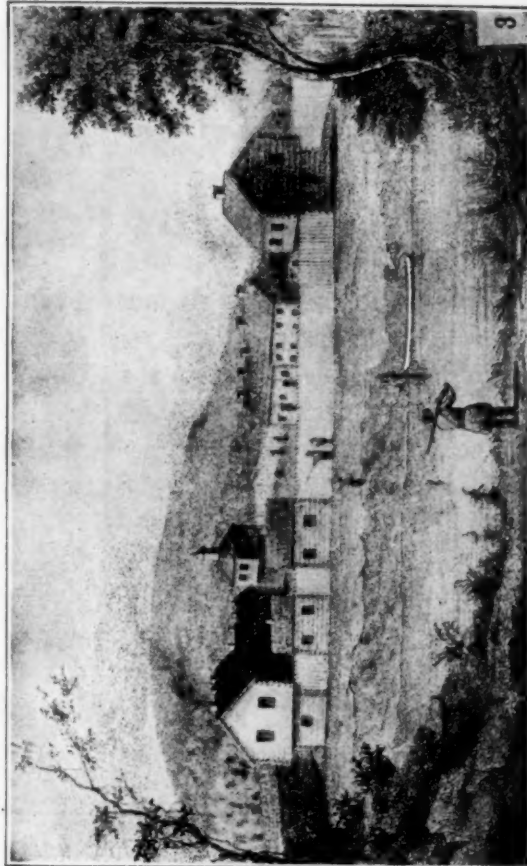
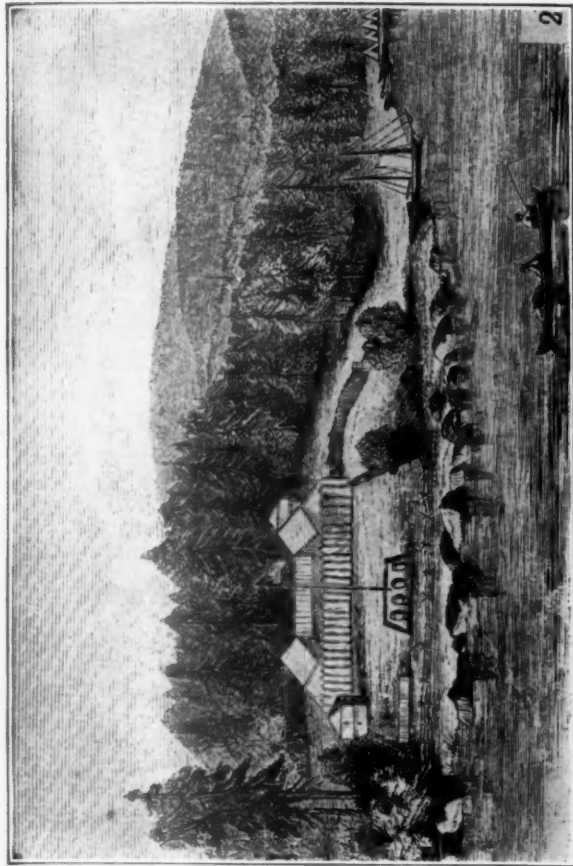
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